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CONCRETE HISTORY WORK IN THE FIRST YEAR OF HIGH SCHOOL

Picture a group of first-year high-school pupils in Brooklyn, studying primitive or industrial history as a basis for the later histories of nations. The class had reached a point in the development of the human family where primitive woman, always on the alert for devices to assist her in solving her many problems of food-getting and burden-bearing, had first conceived the idea of making water-tight vessels of clay.

The subject having been opened by the instructor, and the pupils introduced to their problems, they went about their individual work. To each was given a short bibliography consisting of page-references to articles in the *Reports of the United States National Museum*, written by ethnologists who have "read in" to the archæological remains of prehistoric peoples the progress of racial history. Use was also made of the writings of experts in the study of primitive peoples as they are found existing to-day in different parts of the world.

After about two weeks of individual study, the work was rounded out by conferences and by the presentation of a carefully classified series of lantern views, including, in particular, a set of seven slides showing a Moki woman of the Southwest performing each of these different stages in the making of a jar—mixing the clay, kneading, coiling on a cup pivot, shaping, polishing, painting, firing (the kiln complete).

Then followed a visit to the Museum of Natural History to observe in the pottery collections, contrasts between the crude forms of early potters and the beautiful finished work of later peoples; resemblance to gourd, basketry, and animal shapes; and styles of decoration.

There was manifest throughout the study an eager desire on the part of the pupils to get possession of some clay and

make a jar for themselves. When the time was ripe, a supply of potter's clay was forthcoming and the pupils began enthusiastically to make dishes by the coiled process just as the Moki woman had done it. The only stipulations made to the class were that each pupil should decide at the outset to what use he would put his dish when completed, and that he should adapt its form and size to its use. An instructor in the art of making pottery was with the students, but they had no particular use for her in this crisis; all they wanted was *clay* and *opportunity*.

As a result of the work there was a collection of salad bowls, oatmeal dishes, soap bowls, cream pitchers, vases for flowers, and the like, all of which were set away to harden before the polishing process could be undertaken. On returning the next day, they found to their unbounded surprise and dismay that almost all of the dishes were broken, cracked, warped, or otherwise dilapidated. Now for the first time they became really conscious of the presence of the special instructor and, turning to her with one accord, they sought to know the reasons for their failures and how to avoid them in the next trial. She was able to give them in a few words the results of the experiences of all primitive potters who had built up their art by means of efforts and failures and renewed efforts.

The pupils were now, on their own initiative, as eager to seek instruction as they had been previously to ignore it, with the result that they began new dishes under direct supervision. The coils were more carefully and uniformly made, the structure was more firm, handles were better adapted to the weight of the object, noses of pitchers were more generous in size—in short, more *thought* was put into the execution of the object, and this in a sense through their own initiative. Most of the dishes were finished without accident and sent to the Volkmar potteries to be fired and glazed, the school having no facilities for completing that phase of the work. The pupils had, however, the opportunity to choose the color of the glaze.

Here the subject might well have been closed in as far as it had any bearing upon primitive life, but historically it would have been inconsistent and incomplete not to connect the industry itself with modern life. The political and social life of any race or people has been closely bound up with their

industrial life. This is significantly true of our own nation. Races and peoples have passed away, and as their laws and culture so also their industries have remained, each generation of men building upon the experiences of its predecessors. In order to give students of history a knowledge of, and appreciation for, the conditions of our present civilization, we must show them the steps—political, religious, and industrial—by which civilization has been brought to its present high state. With this thought in mind and the subject under discussion, it remained for the instructor to demonstrate the few remaining stages in pottery-making to connect it with the extensive industry of to-day.

Only a few illustrations were required to show in a general way the manner in which the Orientals and the Greeks expressed themselves in pottery. The next step was exemplified by a visit to a little pottery in Harlem where the potter's wheel was in use for making flower-pots, bean-jars, and crocks. The old potter had spent forty years at his trade and had become very skilful in the manipulation of the wheel, but there were in all not more than six separate forms that he could turn. This gave a glimpse at close range into one rapidly disappearing phase of industry. Last of all there was the manufacture of pottery on the commercial scale for utilitarian purposes as it is found in Trenton and elsewhere, and the higher type of artistic work, such as that made by the Rookwood company in Cincinnati.

I have quoted this incident in a history course because of its suggestiveness in two directions: First, the nature of the work was such that the pupils' initiative supplied the momentum which carried the work along even to the point of seeking instruction where it was needed; second, history and manual work were one subject for the time.

R. S.

SELF-GOVERNMENT IN CHINESE SCHOOLS

This subject in native and foreign schools in China to-day is an interesting one to teachers there and may be instructive to American teachers. The problem is not altogether one with that of our school-city or with other attempts of teachers to introduce democracy into the school for an aid to moral and especially civic instruction. It will, however, throw light upon our efforts.

The subject in China is an important one in the educational affairs of every part of the empire. In every city is heard the expression "the students." This new and motley class of old and young students of the modern schools which have so recently sprung up everywhere seems to be wielding a great influence among the people. In several cities they are attempting to enlighten the superstitious classes by destroying publicly the old idols and by turning the temples into schools. Officials have had to suppress small riots caused by their rash independence. In a large school in Canton the governing body was compelled by the students to discharge one or two unpopular teachers. In that school, Prof. Young, M.A., Columbia University, '05, found the authorities hesitant about taking any steps contrary to the will of the students. In another school a teacher removed some objectionable notices posted up by the students and thereby almost caused a boycott of the school. In a mission school a boy was whipped by his teacher and immediately a student committee was sent to the principal to say that if that method of discipline was to be used as in the old style elementary schools, they must find other schools, to attend. In that case, though there were only two students present the next day, the explanations and persuasion of the teachers brought all back. In other schools the boycott has been used mercilessly. In the old high schools and in a few modern and even mission schools, the students manage the boarding department and sometimes the renting of the houses. Feeling their importance as the highest class of society, they wish to show their independence and at the same time gain valuable experience in the management of affairs.

The cases cited above do not indicate merely revolt against school authority, but are examples of the modern form of the old Chinese method of showing the real source of sovereignty. China has always had a great deal more of the democratic spirit than she has generally received credit for. Just as every man has a right to express his opinion on the conduct of the village affairs, so in schools above the grades the students, with all proper respect to their teachers, prefer to manage as far as possible their own affairs. In many schools there is no student control except a more or less effective expression of public opinion. In others it is well organized.

In the preparatory school of the Canton Christian College, under native and American instructors, the students have besides the usual athletic, literary, and religious organizations found in an American high school, a "Self-Control Association." This holds to the conduct of the students practically the same relation the other associations hold to their respective fields. All of the students, however, are, by a law of the school, under the authority of this association even though they refuse to be members. All of the one hundred now in attendance are members and most of them seem to enter into its spirit and perform their functions as seriously as in any other part of their school work. It originated about four years ago, when a committee of the older students applied to the principal for permission to organize such an institution. Their proposed by-laws and constitution were examined and with some suggestions returned approved. The school was then very small and composed chiefly of boys over sixteen years old, so there was no difficulty in getting self-government into operation. Since then it has clearly proved its usefulness. The field of its authority is limited to that conduct of the pupils which does not receive the regular attention of any teacher. Without the special permission of the principal the penalties are not to be other than small fines. And it is understood that the power of veto rests with the teaching staff or principal, if ever they choose to use it. However, no detailed reports are made and no complaints from students have ever been made.

The general officers are a president, a secretary, and a treasurer. For each room there is a judge and a marshal or policeman. Anyone may report, and the officers are required

to report to the marshal any offence which he may not have discovered himself. The offender is arrested and tried by the judge and if guilty fined. Reports are made monthly from each bench and the money from fines is used to buy books for the school library. Refusals to pay fines are reported to the principal, but are too rare to be of moment. Rotation in office seems to be of great importance, since, I suppose, it keeps the members from criticising too harshly, and the officers from fearing criticism.

The rules which are made at regular or called meetings are definite and sensible, sometimes almost too strict. They demand order in the schoolroom and cleanly habits everywhere. Paper, fruit-skins, etc., must not be thrown on the floor, verandas, or campus. Waste-baskets are provided indoors and cuspidores out and care in their use commanded. Special rules are made and posted in dining-room, bath-rooms, and such places as are frequented by the students only. A good example of the work of the association was the passing and executing of "the cake and fruit law." During a time when plague was epidemic nearby, the school physician requested the boys for the good of the school not to buy anything brought to the school by venders. The younger students paid no attention to this advice, so at a called meeting after a very heated discussion a law was passed and the buying stopped. These rules, it is easily seen, have many advantages over those made by teachers. The teachers could not enforce rules applying to such small offences even if they made them. It is well and good for the students themselves to make their laws as strict and detailed as they please. They do not look upon them as coming from some higher authority, but do themselves feel the responsibility of their execution. The law-abiding student does not feel that they are made for him, but by him, and he has a new impetus to walk uprightly. The teachers are also relieved of a great deal of care and of the necessity of inflicting small punishments. Consequently they are able to come into much closer sympathy with the students, for their problems are more nearly the same. Since the rules apply chiefly to small matters of good habits rather than to serious offences that are dealt with between teacher and individual pupil, no loss of personal influence is suffered and no vital principles are left to be developed by the

student body alone. But the high standards preserved in these smaller things have been very gratifying and lead us to hope that more and more of the larger burdens of discipline will be assumed by the association.

Once when the new students outnumbered the old, the principal had to interfere with the elections and require all the general officers to be elected from among the old students. Again on account of the present great demand in China for military instruction, the military system of discipline has grown in the school so that it threatens to take the place of the "Self-Control Association"; it will be very unfortunate if such is the case.

The benefit of the self-discipline as a means of encouraging conscious and concerted action along useful lines and of giving real training in self-control and in developing social motives, needs no special explanation. I see no reason why such a plan should not be successful in American schools. It is true that Chinese boys are more easily organized than American boys; but the latter are more easily reached by appeal and are more conscious of the need of forming good habits. If once the pupils realize that *they* are the school and that the responsibility of proper conduct depends upon their self-government, the foundation is laid; the superstructure, perhaps after suffering many alterations and reverses of fortune, will, with a little encouragement and a little real success, grow steadily.

H. B. G.

THE USE OF INTRINSICALLY VALUABLE FACTS IN ARITHMETICAL PROBLEMS

Any attempt to give to the mathematics of the upper grammar grades a content of valuable ideas meets with the difficulty of finding material which is satisfactory with respect to both the knowledge involved and the opportunity for the use of mathematical operations—material, that is, which is both rich in meaning and full of quantitative relations that furnish a chance and a demand for the manipulation of numbers.

In the case of city schools, the important public utilities, the systems of transportation, lighting, and water-supply, often provide material which satisfies this double standard. I shall here report very briefly a study of the water-supply system of New York City which the pupils of a seventh grade made the main feature of their work in arithmetic for six weeks. After some explanation of the point of view from which such a study is justified and of certain desirable features, apart from the intrinsic value of the data, which it seems to possess, the method of the study will be outlined and a partial list and description will be given of the actual problems worked out.

It may be said in objection to such a study that mathematics is not an information study—that it is a mere tool in the use of which the pupils are to be made efficient, and that the attempt to make the study something more than explanation and drill in control of means, by injecting ideas which are more social than mathematical is to pervert the study to purposes really foreign to it. The reply to this objection is that in so far as mathematics in the strict sense is a tool, it should be taught as a tool—as a means of understanding and seeing what, but for the sake of figuring, would be uncertain and insignificant.

Mathematics takes for its work the interpretation of quantitative relations important in human life and because of its nature and its method gives meaning and certainty to what otherwise could not be determined or understood. It is then a means, a method, or a tool, and just for that reason is to be taught for what it is, and used in school as it is used

outside—in relation to facts which need its peculiar help. Drill is not eliminated and the drill type problems given in the text-books for the sake of drill are used. There is much drill but it comes because the pupils see and feel that inaccuracy and lack of facility are hindrances. Nothing is more satisfying than to see a class that is freely spontaneous and keenly interested in their mathematics stop for drill when they see its purpose and that they need it. Pure mathematics, in the sixth or seventh grade, might, then, be a form study. But pupils should not be expected there, any more than in the shop, to project themselves ahead eight or more years to make an artificial connection with a use or purpose.

One who regards as false the abstract proposition that arithmetical problems should have intrinsic value for knowledge may yet agree that such a subject as a city's water-supply will furnish useful problems. The study made by my pupils may, then, be justified aside from the general theory which led to it. The subject was closely related to the lives and interests of the pupils. It is in fact of importance to everyone. To see what is significant in it however, one must study it quantitatively. The problems involved that theory which in the progression of the mathematics work in the school belonged to the work of the seventh year. The subject gave a real continuity to the work for six weeks and allowed a use in later problems of the data worked out in the earlier ones. The questions were in large part conceived and formulated by the pupils, and were real in the truest sense. They combined various kinds and methods of work and each one had an element of newness which challenged attention and stimulated initiative. The number of possible solutions to many of the problems encouraged the use of individual judgment.

The work was begun by a general discussion bringing in the pupils' experiences touching the uses of water in the city of New York, its source, the use of the reservoirs in the park, how the water is carried to the buildings, the stand-pipe at Highbridge, the pumping stations, and the city's control of the system. The first question considered was that of storage, because it is a natural beginning of the study and because arrangements for storage—dams and reservoirs—can be seen. In addition these make an impression of the size and importance of the system

that no other approach gives. This beginning of the work demands excursions and walks that give an interest and an idea of size and distance not to be obtained merely by working out the problems on paper. Some of the children went four times to see the new Croton dam, then unfinished, and one party walked down the part of the Croton valley which is now the new lake—from Croton to Croton-on-the-Hudson, a distance of seven or eight miles. The mathematical problems came up mainly as questions in the class and were formulated sometimes by all the pupils working together, and sometimes by individuals. In considering the matter of waste water each pupil in his own way measured the flow from a faucet at his home. Any method of solution was allowed, but accuracy of work and of statements for the notes was required. Each child kept notes of drawings, pictures, problems, and solutions.

Following is a list of problems selected from those worked out.

The data here given are in all cases at least approximately accurate. Where exact statements were not available the class made estimates from what was given in city reports. The pupils used without repetition as "data" whatever had been given for preceding problems or worked out from them. The fact that a small part of the Croton water is used in the Bronx was disregarded.

1. If the supply of water running into the Central Park reservoirs should for some reason be cut off, how long would the water in storage there last the people of Manhattan?

Data: Population of Manhattan 2,160,000.[1] Average number of gallons of water used daily by each person is 136. (This average was obtained by dividing the number of gallons used, by the present population of Manhattan.) Dimensions of large reservoir; area 96 acres, average depth 36 feet. Dimensions of small reservoir; area 31 acres, average depth 24 feet.

[1] This figure was obtained by the pupils as the solution of the following problem: If the rate of growth of Manhattan for 1890–1900 keeps up for 1900–10, what will be the percentage of growth for this period?

On this basis, what may we consider the population in 1906 to be?

Data: Population in 1890—1,441,216.

" " 1900—1,850,093.

2. If Central Park were surrounded by a high, strong wall and water equal in amount to that used by Manhattan in a year were poured over it, how deep would the lake thus made be?

Dtaa: Area of Park 843 acres.

3. How many gallons in storage would there have to be to supply Manhattan during a dry period of one hundred days?

4. How much water is now (before the completion of the new Croton dam) in storage if all of the lakes and reservoirs are full?

Data: Number of gallons in each lake and reservoir.

5. How many days' supply will be provided by the new Croton lake?

Data: Capacity of lake 30,000,000,000 gallons.

6. How long would the water impounded after the completion of the new dam supply the needs of a city of 4,000,000 at the present rate of usage? A city of 8,000,000 people?

7. What is the average amount of rain-fall on the Croton watershed?

Data: Area of watershed 338 square miles; average rainfall 48 inches.

8. What part of the total rainfall is used by Manhattan? (Express graphically.)

9. What will be the pressure on the face of the new dam when the lake is full?

Data: Length of dam 1168 feet. (This is just the main dam.) Average height, 175 feet.

10. About how many cubic yards of masonry are in the main dam?

Data: The average height of the dam is 175 feet; width at top, 18 feet; width at bottom, 170 feet; length, 1168 feet.

Here were a number of problems on the cost of building the dam—surveys, excavation, framework, masonry, etc. An unlimited number of problems can be made from data of this kind. Because of poor engineering, said to have been due to political factors, parts of the dam had to be torn down two or three times and the work was not finished at the proper time. The matter of a reasonable time in which to finish the construction was figured out upon the basis of certain years' work.

11. How much water will the new aqueduct hold when full?

Data: Length 30.8 miles. Area of cross section may be considered to be same as that of a 14-foot circle.

12. What is the rate of flowage per hour in the new aqueduct when 300,000,000 gallons per day come through and the aqueduct is full?

13. If $500,000 is spent yearly to prevent pollution of the waters in the Croton region, what is the cost for each person in Manhattan?

14. If a faucet is left open at one-half flow for five minutes, how much water is wasted?

Data: To be found by measurement at home.

15. What would be the waste if it were left open for a night of eight hours?

16. If a faucet is left open at half flow for 15 minutes each day in each apartment of a building containing 100 apartments, how much water would be wasted daily in the building?

Other subjects worthy of study are the cost of the water to individuals, the debt of the city due to water supply expenditures, and to the new system which is being planned for in the Catskills.

Some indication of the amount and kind of mathematical work involved in these problems will be found in the solution of one of the problems as it appeared in a pupil's notes. The course of study appended shows something of the relation of the work here outlined to the formal work of the grade.

If Central Park were surrounded by a high, strong wall and water equal in amount to that used by Manhattan in a year were poured over it, how deep would the lake thus made be?

Data: Area of Park 843 acres.

Solution:

No. of gallons used in one day = 2,160,000 x 136 = 293,760,000.

No. of gallons used in 1 year = 365 x 293,760,000 = 107,222,400,000.

No. of gallons in 1 cubic foot = 1,728 ÷ 231 = 7.5.

No. of cubic feet of water used in 1 year = 107,222,400,000 ÷ 7.5 = 14,296,320,000.

No. of square feet in surface of Central Park = 843 x 43,560 = 36,721,080.

No. of cubic feet of water in lake over Park 1 foot deep = 36,721,080.

No. of feet in depth of lake containing all the water used in one year = 14,296,320,000÷36,721,080=389.

Formal work in Seventh Grade mathematics:
Continued work in mensuration of surfaces: rectangular, triangular, circular, trapezoidal, irregular.
Volume of solids: rectangular, cylindrical, unusual forms.
Other measures of quantity: similar figures, ratio and proportion, equations, applications of percentage.
Commission, discount, duties, interest, taxes, insurance.
Graphic work expressing relations and change in quantities.
Drill in computation.
Short methods of operation.

Literature on the Water Supply of New York City:

The Department of Water Supply, by William F. King, Municipal Affairs, p. 751.

The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity of the City of New York, published by the City Club, October, 1893.

The Water Supply of the City of New York, for Louisiana Purchase Exposition, by Cook and Taber.

First Annual Report of Department of Water Supply of New York City, 1898.

Map of Croton, Bronx, and Byram, Watersheds, showing location of old and new aqueducts and Bronx River Pipe Line—1903—Department of Water Supply.

The Aqueduct Commissioner's New Croton Reservoir—a map made for aqueduct commissioners.

Aqueduct Commissioner's Report of cost in detail of Croton Dam and the new aqueduct in *City Record* in spring of 1906.

Report of Board of Water Supply of City of New York to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, October, 1905. (This is on the proposed system with reservoirs in the Catskills.)

The Croton Dam in *Scientific American*, September 24, 1904.

Engineering Record, September 10, 1904, page 316 (for Croton Dam). Later numbers of the *Scientific American* on Croton Dam.

G. F. W.

THE DRAMATIC INSTINCT IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The dramatic tendency usually begins in the third year and continues all through life. The essentials of every process and action which the child sees or hears in the heavens above and the earth beneath are made familiar to him in his dramatic imitations. He learns something of every custom of society and every trade and profession, by the short-cut application of that most important of all pedagogical laws, "learning to do by doing," which is also the only sure way of learning to *understand*.

"In its very nature, dramatic imitation is spontaneous and original; hence any attempt at systematic control of it must in the nature of the case almost inevitably prove artificial and ineffective. The wise teacher merely stirs the imagination, supplies the material for dramatic representation, and gives occasional suggestions as they are needed." [Kirkpatrick.]

That action is necessary to understanding has been supposed to be true more especially of the lowest grades, and it has received a place of growing importance in the kindergarten and the primary school. But the possibilities of dramatic action in the grades above the primary are coming to be recognized by leading educators, from the standpoint both of emotional and of intellectual development. Valuable as is this mode of expression from the side of feeling, it possesses a hardly secondary value from the side of knowing.

McMurry says that our inability or slowness to respond to this suggestion (dramatization) is a sign of a certain narrowness or cramp in our culture and training. "Ideas must find expression before they can be conceived with the greatest clearness and accuracy. Proof that such teaching secures vivid pictures is in the fact that children taught in this way are free from self-consciousness—they enter into the spirit of the situations so that they forget themselves." If this be true, every experiment in this field of wide and comparatively untried possibilities should be welcomed.

The scenes given below were written and presented by the

sixth grade of a large private school in New York City, and show that the "wise teacher" need not in all cases even "supply the material for dramatic representation." Great as was the benefit derived from the dramatic representation itself, the stimulus and incentive to good work was felt all along the line in history, English, music, and art. And if any teacher demurs at such an undertaking on the ground of extra time and labor, she will find that once the work is begun, the regular school work falls into line with it in a manner hardly to be accomplished in any other way.

When school closed in June these pupils were told that they had been chosen to give the play for the Thanksgiving festival the next fall. The subject was to be the Pilgrims, and incidentally Miles Standish. Knowing this before the summer vacation gave them an opportunity for reading about "The Pilgrims in their Three Homes," for collecting pictures, or if opportunity offered for visiting Plymouth. In September when the class came together again they were told of a visit to Plymouth; "Miles Standish" was read; history material was closely related to the subject in hand; and English work on the play was begun.

The scene as a whole was first written by each member of the class and the results were brought in for discussion and comparison. One of the best was then taken as a skeleton. Suggested improvements were made—possibly a better introduction or a better close for the scene was supplied from another paper. The scene when completed was written on the board and copied by the class.

We varied the method of formulating the matter for different scenes, although the individual pupils in any case were to have made their own attempts in writing and thus have something in the way of contribution for the scene as it finally was to stand. Perhaps the class work they enjoyed best was that in which the teacher wrote the scene on the board as it was built up step by step from suggestions made by the pupils, taken from their papers, or given in sudden inspiration as interest and excitement waxed high over striking effects. One scene, the embarkation, was arranged almost wholly on the stage, with the exception of Robinson's speech.

The work of revision, when done by the whole class, was

necessarily slow and needed guiding by the teacher, for this was a wide-awake class and not in the least shy about advancing opinions and criticisms. They were, however, equally appreciative of a clever touch given by any pupil, as in Mrs. Hopkins' circumflex "So!" at the end of the first scene.

In order to hasten the completion of the last scene and get it on the boards, a committee was chosen to meet and confer with the English teacher and evolve from a few of the best papers a scene which should present a satisfactory close. The class also wrote a Pilgrim song for which they composed the music. The stage setting and costumes were simple. White cambric collars and cuffs and large hats, with an occasional cape, a helmet for Miles Standish, and a robe for the preacher Robinson, made up the boys' costumes, while the girls were quaint in Puritan caps and aprons, with long skirts. Needless to say, the children were vitally interested in their costumes, as well as in the customs of the Pilgrims. The children gained also a valuable appreciation of character. After deciding that Mrs. Hopkins should be the grumbler, they showed keen enjoyment in making every speech of hers carry out the part.

While it would hardly be possible for a teacher alone and unaided to plan and carry out such a play in all its details, the general plan could be followed, and the benefit to the children would repay the effort a thousand fold; at the same time the labors of the teacher would be lessened in every subject that touches the central thought of the play, because of the added interest and stimulus.

One word as to the ethical value of the play: In a class ranging from the children of the wealthy to boys of the street, dramatic action appealed somehow, somewhere, to every one. The shy boy had his part and filled it, while the consciously pretty girl came to realize that others, too, had talents. The play was a leveler in a truly democratic sense, for every child helped.

The result of their work follows: [1]

M. I. B.

[1] The work was done in coöperation with the departments of English, music, history, and art; though, as may be seen from the text, every department helped. The actual presentation was in charge of the director of festival workers.

THE PILGRIM PLAY

PART I

SCENE I. HOUSE OF GOV. CARVER IN HOLLAND

Persons present: MRS. BREWSTER, MRS. HOPKINS, MRS. BRADFORD, MRS. WHITE, KATHARINE CARVER, DUTCH CHILD, ENGLISH CHILD, AND OTHERS.

Mrs. Hopkins. O, this flax in Holland is very poor! It breaks every minute and now that I have just put it together, it has broken again. I would fain be back in old England.

Mrs. Carver. It is not well to complain. Flax is not the only thing. We have our own religion and greater freedom than in Scrooby. There we were in danger of having our husbands clapped in prison or put to the stocks for worshipping contrary to King James.

Mrs. Hopkins. But I don't want my children to become Dutch. The other day my little boy brought in some boys and they were playing school and were teaching him more Dutch. (*Dutch child speaks.*)

Mrs. Brewster. Methinks we must not be too severe. Have not the Dutch treated us kindly? We have much to be thankful for.

Mrs. White. I wonder why the men tarry so long. I would fain hear tidings of the council.

Mrs. Hopkins. Tidings! thou shalt hear no tidings except that we are going to a worse land!

Mrs. Carver. Think not thus of the good men! They will decide for the best.

Enter Elder Brewster, Carver, and Hopkins.

Mrs. White (*first to see the men*). Well! What tidings bringst thou?

Carver (*unheeding*). Good-morrow fair dames. Fifteen days from the morrow and we Pilgrims sail for the New World, America. (*All startled and amazed. Silence.*)

Mrs. Hopkins (*first to recover*). Just as I told you, just as I told you, Mistress Brewster!

Mrs. Brewster (*not noticing*). And where shall we get the ship?

Brewster. Hopkins and Winslow will fetch that from England.

Mrs. White. And who will protect us from the Indians?

Mr. Hopkins. A military leader, too, we will fetch from England.

Mrs. Hopkins. And who will be our preacher, good sir? (*addressing Brewster*).

Mr. Brewster. As Robinson must remain here, I will undertake it.

Mrs. Hopkins. So! (*looking him up and down*).

Mr. Hopkins. I must leave on the morrow for England, so I will depart to make ready.

Dames. And only fifteen days for all we have to do!

SCENE II. THE EMBARKATION. Sailors carrying luggage

Captain. Hurry, my men! Make haste, there! Dost think the tide will wait for us?

Sailors. Aye, aye, sir!

1st Sailor. If this wind but holds we will make good speed.

2nd " And it come not too strong.

3rd " Here, mate, lend a hand.

4th " Aye, aye.

Enter two Dutchmen.

1st Dutchman (*to Captain*). What iss it?

Captain. The English ship *Mayflower.* To take the Pilgrims to America! We sail at noon to-day.

1st Dutchman. O, yess, yess! (*Explains to second Dutchman. Takes place at side of platform.*)

Enter group of Pilgrims—the Carver family and Lois, Miles and Rose Standish, Mr. and Mrs. Brewster and children. *Greet each other.*

Mr. Carver (*to Captain*). Is the wind favorable, Captain?

Captain. 'T is fair.

Enter second group—Hopkins family, Mullins family, Mary Chilton, Bradford, Whites, Winslows, and Puritans who remain behind. Elder Robinson in center of group. *Greetings to other group.*

Mrs. Eaton (*to Mrs. Carver*). I know not what we shall do, we who are left behind. (*Sighs and shakes head.*)

Mrs. Hopkins (*to Mrs. White*). I was forced to leave behind my best feather bed—the captain said it was too large.

Mr. White (*to Mr. Bradford*). It appeareth that all the luggage is aboard.

Mr. Bradford. Yes, it is nearly the sailing hour.

Mrs. Brewster (*to Barbara Standish, remaining behind*). Now that it is time to go I am afraid—it is so far.

Barbara Standish. Nay, fear not—I would I were going too. I hope next year to see you there.

Mrs. Winslow. Elder Robinson would speak.

(*All quiet and attentive*).

Robinson's speech—

Dearly beloved people, methinks this is the last time I shall speak to you. Ye are going away to the new land across the ocean and most of you I shall never see again, for I am too old to accompany you on the long, hard journey or to endure the hardships that you will have to endure.

My children, I charge ye, do not forget the religion for the sake of which ye have left England and are going to make new homes for yourselves in the wilderness. Let all remain true and steadfast, but above all see to it that the new land is truly a land of religious freedom, where every man may worship as he thinks right.

To thee, William Brewster, I give the charge of my people's souls. Mayest thou do thy task well—and do ye, my good people, obey your new leader.

To thee, brave Miles Standish, I commend the task of caring for their bodies. Mayest thou fight well for them and protect their homes from the savages.

Wilt thou, John Carver, take charge of my people's rights and help them to make their laws and govern them with fairness and justice. And now, my people, fare ye well. May success and happiness come to ye in America—to ye and to your children's children.

Scene III.

Persons present: Carver, Bradford, Brewster, Winslow, Indian.

Carver. How shall we answer the challenge? Shall the council stand for peace or war?

Bradford. Methinks we must make war. If not, they may think we are too weak to fight them.

Hopkins. Nay, nay, it will be best to keep peace with the poor heathen.

Winslow. I see not why we should refrain from making war upon the Redskins. We have tried to be kind to them and they have repaid us with hostility—thus!

Brewster. I deem it wise and well that some at least be converted rather than that any are slain, for this is but Christian behavior.

(*Enter Miles Standish.*)

Miles Standish. "What, do you mean to make war with milk and water of roses! Is it to shoot red squirrels," etc. (*Speech from Longfellow's "Miles Standish"*). . . . "And thus I answer the challenge."

SCENE IV. MRS. BREWSTER'S KITCHEN

Priscilla Mullins present, stirring something in a small bowl.

Priscilla. 'T is the last of the flour. It is scarcely enough to make a little posset for the invalid!

(*Enter John Alden with hare.*)

John Alden. See, Priscilla, I have been successful. Now thou canst make some broth for Mistress Brewster.

Priscilla. You cannot think, John, how glad I am!

John. And now I will help thee dress it.

(*Takes knife, drops it, etc.*)

Priscilla. O, John, thy fingers are but clumsy. (*They busy themselves with preparations.*) Tell me, hast heard aught of the ship?

John. Nay, she has not been sighted. But even now Hobomok is watching.

Priscilla. "I have been thinking," etc.

John. Yea, indeed I do not condemn you. Stouter hearts than a woman's have quailed in this terrible season. You have been brave and wise, then do not be discouraged now.

Priscilla. You will think it wrong but I cannot help it—I almost wish myself back in Old England.

(*Enter Hobomok.*)

Hobomok. Heap big ship—see far out in water.

Priscilla. A ship—Oh, food and friends and comfort!

Curtain.

PART II

Persons present: PRISCILLA, MARY CHILTON, MRS. CARVER, AND MAID LOIS.

Mrs. Hopkins bustles in.

Mrs. Hopkins. Here, Priscilla, take this cake. I know Oceanus will burn himself before I get back!

Priscilla. What a fine cake—methinks the savages never had such a treat as this.

Mary Chilton. Even you, Priscilla, could not make a better one.

Priscilla. Nay, but I can make a dish such as none of you have tasted—a real Indian pudding.

Mary Chilton. That should please our Indian guests. Where didst thou learn it?

Priscilla. From one of the Indian squaws.

(*Enter Mrs. Brewster, assisted by Lois.*)

Mrs. Hopkins. 'T is Mistress Brewster! Thou look'st like a shadow. Is it prudent for thee to be here?

Mrs. Brewster. I could stay away no longer. Although I could not help with the preparations for the Thanksgiving feast, I must have a look at the good things.

Mrs. Hopkins (*sighing*). I trust all will go well and there will be enough.

(*Enter Miles Standish and John Alden with guns. They salute Mrs. Brewster.*)

Miles Standish. Art here in good time, Mistress Brewster, to hear that our army has again been victorious. To-day have we slain a deer and five wild turkeys. The men are even now dressing them, and Alden and I seek a cook to prepare them.

Mrs. Carver. My oven, I think, will hold the turkeys and perhaps Mistress White will cook the venison. Here is Lois. She can take my place and help thee, Mistress Brewster, and I will go even now and attend to them. Bring them to me, John, when they are dressed.

(*Exit Mrs. C.*)

Priscilla. I have not enough meal for my pudding—wilt fetch me the sack, John?

John. That will I right gladly. (*Does so*). But now I must go to bring Mistress Carver the turkeys.

Miles Standish. Wait, John, I will go with thee.
(*Adieus. Exit Standish and John.*)

Mary Chilton. Doth it not look well! (*Holding pewter dish.*)

Mrs. Brewster. It belonged to my grandmother.

Mrs. Hopkins. But of what service is it here in the wilderness!

Mary Chilton. It will grace well the table at the feast to-morrow and is our only bit of finery.

Mr. Winslow (*bringing pies*) (*greets Mrs. Brewster*). My good wife bade me leave these and say that she will send the bread as soon as it is baked.

Lois. I will take them, Mr. Winslow. How nice they look—see, Mistress Brewster!

Priscilla. 'T will be a goodly feast—as good as any in England.
Enter Indians (*Hob. and Mass.*)

Massasoit. Me—ten—ten braves—all meat.

Priscilla. What does he say, Hobomok?

Hobomok. Him means—he have ten and ten braves coming, all have meat for white man's feast.

Priscilla. There are twenty Indians coming, all with meat.

Massasoit. White man—white squaw—kind to Massasoit. Them hungry—Massasoit feed them.

FLOWER GARDENS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In the autumn of 1904, a botany class in a North Dakota school started, under the direction of the writer, a piece of work involving material quite similar to some used in class work somewhat later. Near the end of October, the students set out, in beds prepared by themselves, about six hundred tulip bulbs. The project described below had certain merits and deficiencies to be noted later.

This class, composed of second year students, continued the subject through the year. The work of the first month, October, was on the "habits" of mature plants, such as the movements and arrangement of leaves, and the various sorts of stems adapted to different conditions. As examples of the underground food storage type, the potato and onion were studied somewhat in detail as to structure.

The planting bee occurred a little before the class reached this topic. Besides a twelve-foot circular flower bed already made in the front lawn, two others were laid out along the front of the building, each about four by thirty feet. Some of the boys removed the hard surface earth to make room for rich loam, others put ashes and gravel in the bottom of the excavation to secure under-drainage, while others attended to the filling, and to banking up the face of the beds with strips of sod. A careful explanation was given concerning the varieties of bulbs, the distance and depth at which they should be placed, and the manner of laying out the beds. Different sections of the class took charge of different beds. Certain students were held responsible for the accurate placing of the stakes and strings, others for the distribution and proper setting of the bulbs—that they went in right side up, and to the proper depth. In the long beds two rows of an early variety of plain red tulips were placed nearest the light colored stone foundation, with reds and plain yellows completing the color scheme. The circular bed was treated differently from the long beds. To give it a dome-like effect, the bulbs were set in concentric circles on a low mound and were then covered with about six inches of earth.

The bulbs used were parti-colored varieties of the "medium early" sort, which means that they bloom in the northern country about June first. Those in the outer four feet were bright scarlet feathered with white; the central eight feet were set with "Joost von Vondels," a red variety with a rich golden margin. The winter covering of straw was not put on for a month or so in order to give the bulbs a chance to root.

The above is a fairly accurate account, so far as it goes, of the usual procedure in this sort of work, rather minute instructions being given, as a rule, immediately before the performance of the task, as was done here. From the standpoint of a lover of flowers the bed was a success. The results showed that the mechanical work had been well done. Some features of the work undoubtedly had educative value; in other respects great possibilities were not taken advantage of. Many such opportunities have no doubt occurred to the reader of this sketch. It is here given as a basis for certain criticisms and for some remarks on this type of work in general.

Regarding this task, as well as many others set for pupils, some such questions as these may well be asked: What was it for? What did the pupils think it was for? Might better reasons have been advanced than those given them? Frankness compels the confession that the conscious motives had far less connection with the classroom activities than they should have had. The conscious objects—and they were worthy of the work —were (1) to add to the beauty of the otherwise barren environment, one that was typical of the state, (2) to demonstrate to North Dakotans the possibility that bulbous plants grown out of doors would survive the rigor of the northern climate, and (3) by having the students once see the returns in the way of early beauty from such efforts as we were making, to encourage them to make similar attempts in their own homes. These aims probably gave as good motivation as could be furnished. They were given the pupils ready made; they did not proceed from the students, and perhaps never would, under the existing peculiar conditions. But the general tendency of the students to decorate, as shown in their rooms, is one that can safely be relied upon in suggesting an exercise like the one described. We do not "implant" or "instil" a love of the beautiful; we can only hope to give it a chance to grow.

When the work is well planned, the planting of bulbs is the concrete application of a discussion on the characteristic function of that type of stems—that of storing up food and of putting forth leaves and flowers in early spring. In work so planned, such exercises will be as naturally an integral part of the laboratory work as any outdoor observation or field trip. To make this intimate connection, unless the planting comes very close to the table study of bulbs, care must be taken to see that the study of the bulb looks forward to the planting, or that the planting consciously anticipates the discussion that would otherwise be taken up with the later indoor study. The garden should be the soul of work that might else degenerate into a listless dissection of lifeless material. In this gardening we have a motor process which is closely related in fact, and should be in teaching, to an important fact in plant economy and adaptation. A mere slicing of a bulb in vertical and cross section gives no clue to its use. But to see in spring the unfolding beauty, drawing on the food stored in the planted bulb, will impress the principle involved more than endless admonitions to "note" that this or that early spring flower comes from a bulb, tuber, corm, rhizome, or what not. The home grown tulip, crocus, or hyacinth points out the significance of the underground structure. The specific example of the tulip bed illustrates a principle that should govern the use of any garden work as a part of a course in biology, or, for that matter, in nature study and its step-sister "elementary agriculture" in the grades. Our great desideratum is to stimulate thought from experience. However much this may be imagined to be the peculiar function of some particular branch in the curriculum, any study is weak to the extent that it fails to use all its opportunities to do this.

Certain social phases of this piece of work may be noticed. It was co-operative; there was a division of labor, and a varied responsibility. One could see that those setting out the bulbs quickly noticed any inaccuracy in laying out the beds and called to account those guilty. The conditions for competition were the best. Neither section had anything to lose; nor would anything accrue to either except satisfaction in the floral display resulting from superior painstaking. A school relation was found in the use of the flowers in the art work. But a social feature of broader significance was in the second motive

mentioned above—the relation of the work to the home life. In this region bulb culture bears a peculiar relation to the homes, one that will hardly be found in most school work with flowers over the country at large. Such a comparatively new country, settled by busy people, cannot be expected to have well established æsthetic traditions, especially of landscape decoration. Nor does nature furnish much of suggestion. Because of their short summer, one sees the curious spectacle of wild flowers following on each other's heels, that farther south bloom months apart. Few plants set out as early as is consistent with prudence can get ready to bloom before midsummer. Our undertaking was an object-lesson on the advantages, in the North country, of bulbous plants, and on the possibility of adding outdoor cheer to the trying months when one hesitates between storm-windows and house-cleaning. From this standpoint, the results were ample justification. The display in mass and in duration exceeded anything in the town. A large proportion of the students were non-residents, and many of them had never seen more than half a dozen stalks in a bed, if indeed they had ever seen the plant at all. By having participated in this exercise a previous skepticism on the part of the students as to the outcome gave way to a confidence in trying the experiment later themselves. The material used is certainly the most practicable kind for floral decoration of the mass of schools which close before any seed-grown plants can show results, and for setting off that most essential element of good landscape gardening—shrubbery.

A serious criticism might well be urged, however, when we seek for the source of the initiative. It has been pointed out that probably the first suggestion might have to be supplied, but could be engrafted on a native tendency. The issue might be raised whether the work would not have been of more value had the ideas of the pupils been drafted in to work out some of the lesser points at least.

Inquiry might have started from any one of several points of departure. Granted that we have a common desire to utilize the habits of bulbous plants, is there an advantage in using one species rather than another? What colors and sizes will harmonize best with the surroundings? What width of bed will be in best taste for the length? Or better still, as a point of attack, we might ask the general question,—what are the

characteristics of a tasteful flower-bed? On the practical side, we have a number of points to consider. What is the relation of the climate to the manner of setting the bulbs? What is the effect of too deep planting? How far will a sufficiently shallow planting provide protection against the cold? How far can snow be relied upon in this locality for protection? To what extent is it ever relied upon as a protection for crops? What makes the best covering? Why not cover immediately after planting? How far must our desire for mass effects be conditioned on the need of each bulb for space? In the spring we have other problems for solution. When may the plants be safely uncovered? How severe weather will the young shoots withstand, and what precautions must be observed to tide them over the critical time? At flowering time the necessity of cutting the flowers or the green seed pods opens up the biological question of the effect of seed production on the vitality of the plant, and the value of the bulbs for another season. At some time, preferably when bulbs are the subject of study, we might have such a far-reaching topic as the raising of bulbs as an industry in Holland and in the Bermudas, and their importation; while the forcing of bulbs would come up later, especially if narcissus and hyacinth bulbs are grown indoors. By such means as suggested in the above questions, work of this nature may be made to put a broader content into biology, and to encourage the use of judgment—in other words, it may be made an active agent in yielding thought. Some of the questions cannot be answered from related experience; some should not be solved by the "trial and error" method, for wrong procedure means disaster to an experiment that cannot be repeated in the school experience; and some of the questions must be referred directly to expert advice. But they are questions to excite mental activity—of the sort that does not find its end in itself, but must find its expression in the student's life and world.

We may summarize them somewhat as follows:

1. Each kind of flower, or vegetable, too, for that matter, should belong to a particular topic of the classroom work.
2. The connection should be made so vital that the students would wonder how it could be left out.
3. Those materials should be selected having the larger social

bearings, whether æsthetic or utilitarian in the narrow sense.

4. They might often well be chosen to supply deficiencies in the community to make the work count most as a social factor.
5. The garden should contribute content, to the utmost, to the subject of which it is one method of expression.
6. We should neither stop with the bringing together of many facts, no matter how useful, nor content ourselves with a bare demonstration of processes; but should aim to stir up a mental activity that can find its ultimate expression in society.

C. H. R.

THE STORY IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

I

The last decade has witnessed a great increase of interest in children's stories, and a wide extension of their use in schools; but as long as a very large number of teachers still deprive themselves of the help of a powerful ally by neglecting to draw upon the great fund which is ever at their disposal, or as long as there are many who make poor selections of material and present them poorly to their pupils, there is need both of agitation and enlightenment in regard to stories and story-telling in the school. The mission of the propagandist in this field is not yet fulfilled while teachers remain ignorant or indifferent in regard to the use of stories, or, worse yet, actually opposed to the idea. It is true that many hesitate to take it up because it is new to them, and they refrain through lack of confidence in their own powers, saying that story-tellers are born, not made. This argument is no more true of this class of people than of doctors, lawyers, and teachers. The hesitancy is usually due to lack of practice, and so the timid teacher, having selected her stories and studied them well, can acquire skill and assurance only through actual practice in telling them, and through the correction of her weaknesses as they become apparent in the process.

What aims are accomplished, what purposes are furthered by the use of stories in the primary schools, are fair questions whose answers should throw light upon both the selection of the stories themselves and upon the method of treating them. To say that children love stories is to advance a strong reason why stories should be told, but not an adequate one. Children like many things which are not good for them. But fortunately, in the case of stories, the liking and beneficial results are not antagonistic. Some stories, yes, many stories are good for children. Children possess many instincts and capacities whose favorable development may be greatly aided by stories, and herein lies much of the pleasure they find in them. Children love activity, they imitate, they make-believe, they personify,

they give rein to fancy and indulge in wide flights of the imagination, and are oftentimes not quite sure that their dolls are not alive. They have not yet drawn closely the dividing line between the real and unreal, between fact and fancy in life and nature. Heine in his *Harzreise* compares with this simple, believing life of childhood the life of the people among whom he fancies the folk-stories have originated, and in so doing he gives us a sympathetic insight into the stories themselves. I quote his theory as he gave it: "Although the life of these people seems to be so absolutely peaceful, it is nevertheless a genuine, vivified life. The palsied old woman who sits opposite the great cupboard back of the stove may have been sitting there a quarter of a century, and her thinking and feeling have become associated with every angle of the stove and with every carved figure on the cupboard. And cupboard and stove are alive, for a human being has shared with them her soul.

"Only through such a deeply reflective life, through this 'immediateness,' did the German folk-story come into being, whose peculiarity it is that not only animals and plants, but also objects apparently without life speak and act. To a thoughtful, harmless people, in the quiet, peaceful privacy of their lowly mountain or forest cabins, the inner life of such objects was revealed. These objects assumed a necessary, consistent character, a sweet mixture of fantastic humor and purely human motivation. And so we see in these folk-stories, in a curious way, and quite as a matter of course, how the needle and the pin leave the Tailor's Inn and get lost in the darkness; how the straw and the live coal attempt to cross the stream and meet with disaster; how the shovel and the broom stand scolding on the stairs and finally come to blows; how the mirror when questioned shows the picture of the most beautiful woman; how even the drops of blood begin to speak fearful, mysterious words of apprehensive compassion. For the same reason, the life of childhood possesses such boundless significance. At that period, all things are equally important. We hear everything, we see everything, and all impressions are of like value. Later we become more purposeful, and devote ourselves to single objects; with great pains we exchange the pure gold of perception for the paper money of book definitions, and win in breadth of life what we lose in depth. Now we are grown people of

importance; we move often to new dwellings; the maid puts them in order every day, and changes at will the position of the furniture; and that interests us but little because it is either new, or else belongs to-day to the second-hand man and to-morrow to the pawnbroker. Even our clothing is strange to us, and we scarcely know how many buttons there are on the coats which we wear at this moment. Yes, we even change as often as possible the various garments of our wardrobe so that no one of them retains any connection with our inner or outer history. We can scarcely remember what that brown vest looked like which drew so much ridicule upon us, but upon whose broad stripes the dear hand of the loved one so caressingly rested.

"The old woman opposite the great cupboard behind the stove wore a flowered gown of old-fashioned material, the wedding dress of her sainted mother. Her grandson, a fair-haired, blue-eyed lad dressed like a miner, sat at her feet and counted the flowers on her dress, and she has probably told him many stories about this dress,—many serious, beautiful stories which the youth does not forget, and which will often haunt his memory when soon, a grown man, he works alone in the dark corridors of the Caroline mine; stories which he will probably tell once more when the dear grandmother has long been dead, and he himself, a silver-haired, withered old man, sits in the circle of his grandchildren opposite the great cupboard behind the stove."

If it be true, as a certain Professor has said, that fifty per cent of the students studying literature in college are lacking in imagination, then something must have happened to the imagination between the time when those students first entered school and the time when they took up their literary work in college. It must have been either neglected or repressed. We need not go back very far in our study of curricula for the first school year to discover almost an entire absence of anything which gives opportunity for the exercise of this very important aid in mental and moral development. The use of the story will not create imagination or any other faculty, but it affords an admirable opportunity for its exercise and development when already present.

While stories may be told simply to give pleasure to the children, or to occasion the activity of instincts and capacities,

they serve admirably still another purpose, that of moral culture. It is the unanimous testimony of those who have written of their experience in telling stories to children that the story is a most potent factor in moral training. One writer has felt this so keenly that she declares the purpose of the story is "To feed the spirit of life." What is it to feed the spirit of life but to give joy, to arouse the imagination, to enlarge and enrich the spiritual experience, to furnish standards for life and growth and to stimulate reaction to them, and to exercise upon the children all the influence that comes from force of example? A story to serve this purpose must contain some underlying truth. It sometimes gives us a gradual development of a character, what might be termed a longitudinal section of a life. Sometimes many years are covered by the narrative, and the development or suppression of tendencies is portrayed, resulting at last in the character which stands either as an inspiration or a warning to us. Both sacred and profane literature are full of such character paintings so it is not necessary to give examples of them. But sometimes we have a horizontal section of a life. Such stories are often like a flash of lightning in their vividness and in their revelation of the direction of tendencies. In these stories there is usually more concentration of energy and activity than in those above described, and from the very nature of the stories this must be so.

It seems to be the aim of many modern authors to present to us complex social problems and either to omit the solution or to make it so obscure that the reader is left in a state of perplexity. This complexity and obscurity are not characteristics of the stories for children. In the fairy tales and folk stories which have come to us through inheritance, the villain is promptly recognized as a villain and receives an inevitable punishment. Virtue and valor may suffer hardships for a time but are triumphant in the end. Thus a situation both simple and interesting is put before the children to exert its influence upon their ideals and actions. Our modern stories, in so far as they are suitable for children, possess these same characteristics of directness, simplicity, and interest. One has only to read the stories written by such skilled artists as Miss Harrison and Mrs. Wiggin to be convinced of the truth of these statements. In every school there are boys and girls who struggle

with some traits which need encouragement and with others which should be repressed. The teacher who knows the inner life of her pupils can choose from the great wealth of stories those which meet their needs in this impressionable age when imitation is so active. She thus strengthens her hands and theirs in the great struggle for the preservation and development of the better, higher side of their natures.

Stories are one of the simplest and quickest means of establishing pleasant relations between teacher and school, and of introducing a comfortable school room atmosphere. There can be no wall of division between the teacher and the children after they have laughed together over a funny story, or have shared the adversities and triumphs of the characters depicted, and have felt the thrill of anxiety as to how it is all going to come out in the end. Stiff military discipline disappears and something much better takes its place. How can teachers who preserve rigid, unbending order ever know the minds, to say nothing of the hearts of their pupils? They cannot, and some of them do not want to. Others would walk in the better way if they knew it, but the trouble is they do not know it. I wonder how many children have been withheld from mischief or the display of ill-manners by reference to the Goops, or to some character in a story who showed strength where these children are weak, or who fell into grievous trouble for yielding. It is the same old principle over again of example being better than precept.

To give just one example of the power of a story to hold a school in the face of a crisis, let me relate an incident from my own experience. The children in the primary grades of a certain Training Department became greatly frightened during the course of a terrific thunder-storm. To them, the darkness, the crashing thunder, and the brilliant lightning were unprecedented and they soon began to cry and then to scream from terror. As there were more than forty children in the room the confusion may be imagined. I was sent for, and as I went to the children I wondered how I could best calm them. The story of *The Haughty Weathervane* came to my mind, so the story was told of the great storm like the one then in progress, and of how the haughty weathervane refused to turn until finally he was broken off from the church steeple and went bumping and sliding down

over the church roof into the deep, we grass in the yard. At this point in the story, fear gave way to mirth, and the children broke into nervous laughter. Afterwards, they grew calm enough to watch the storm, and later, as it grew light and the storm blew over, the usual routine was resumed. Just as potent as this have others found the story as a means of quelling genuine mischievous disorder in a new school, and of winning the attention, interest, and the good will of incipient rioters. I am far from saying that the use of stories will overcome all the ills incident to school life, but I do maintain that they are of great aid and serve a high purpose, and that they therefore should be used far more extensively and discriminatingly than they now are.

Among the many other purposes which stories serve, at least one more should be mentioned here. It is the formation of good taste in reading and speaking. G. Stanley Hall says that when we teach children to read we must assume also the responsibility of teaching them to read that which is good, of forming their taste in reading. If we would nurture in our pupils a taste for good reading, it must be by providing a fine literary environment, and until the children have mastered the mechanics of reading, this environment must be made known through the ear. Much of the story literature is suited to these early school years as to no other period and to wait for the child to read it, is to defer it beyond the point of highest enjoyment. For him it has passed its prime. In justice, then, both to the child and to his literary inheritance, they should be brought together at the right time so that the former may feel the pleasure which is his due, and by association with the best, learn to prefer it, and to seek it for himself.

It is only necessary to refer to the strong instinct to imitate which is common to all children to make it clear that through the story not only new ideas and ideals are brought within the ken of children, but new words as well, and the correct pronunciation of old ones. Here the story and the manner of its telling merge their influence. Given a teacher with a good voice, who pronounces correctly, who enunciates distinctly, and who knows how to provide the setting for the new word in the story so that its meaning may be grasped, and through the story work good taste and correct usage in oral language are greatly

advanced. But mere mechanical perfection in the teacher's utterance will not bring these things to pass. She must be "in the spirit" when she tells stories.

Not more than passing mention need be made of the use of stories for informational purposes in connection with geography, nature study, and other subjects. Their helpful function in this respect is so evident that they are used in this way even when otherwise quite neglected.

To sum up what has been said thus far, the use of stories in primary grades is justified and is desirable because stories are a source of pleasure to children, and furnish opportunity for the exercise of desirable instincts and capacities; they aid moral development through the ideas and ideals presented; they influence the school atmosphere favorably, bringing about pleasant and friendly relations between class and teacher, and aiding in the discipline; and lastly, they are of great assistance in helping children to form good taste in literature and language.

II

The analysis just made of the purposes served by the use of stories in the primary grades almost of itself answers the query as to what stories shall be employed. Stories should be chosen first of all with definiteness of purpose and with regard to the situation to be met. In selecting, one must keep in mind the age, experience, the power of appreciation of the audience, and the occasion and place of the telling. Miss Wiltse says: "We have no right to isolate a story in a day's life; and just here lies the power of a story for a child—its vital relation to other things in that child's life. There is no bad habit, no wrong tendency or weak point that may not be attacked or propped by a right use of the story; no fact in nature or principle of right which may not be treated in the form of a story." In speaking of the selection of stories for neglected children, Mrs. Wiggin says: "Brighten these sordid lives a little with your pretty thoughts, your lovely imaginations, your tender pictures. Speak to them simply, for their minds grope feebly in the dim twilight of their restricted lives. The old, old stories will do; stories of love and heroism and sacrifice; of faith and courage and fidelity. Kindle in tired hearts a gentler thought of life; open the eyes that see

not and the ears that hear not; interpret to them something of the beauty that has been revealed to you. You do not need talent, only sympathy, that one poor word that includes all our best insight and our best love."

We have here the two predominating factors in choosing a story clearly presented, that is, what the situation demands, and the content of the story which fits it to the occasion. Do your children need rest, recreation, brightening, cheering, and the saving sense of humor exercised? Then choose stories bubbling over with pure, wholesome fun, and enjoy them with the class to the full. Are there moral situations to meet, search for the right story to help you and the weak ones in facing them. Know the children, know the purpose for which the story is needed, and you have your criteria by which you may know when you have found something appropriate. And it does not matter so much what the literary form of the story is when you find it, because that is something you can change to suit your purpose. Some comments made by Professor Brander Matthews about the short-story are not inappropriate here: "Important as are form and style, the subject of the Short-story is of more importance yet. What you have to tell is of greater interest than how you tell it."

The same writer has also said, "A sketch may be an outline of a character or even a picture of a mood of mind, but in a Short-story there must be something done, there must be an action." This statement gives us one of the essential elements in any story suitable for children, i.e., activity. Studies made of children's stories bring out this fact clearly. Children dwell little upon the emotional side. They will pass that over quickly by saying "She felt bad and so she did so and so," or simply "It made him feel glad." They cling to the sequence of activities, omitting descriptions of persons, places, and things. The æsthetic and the emotions are neglected for the active phases of the story. This is not because the children are not aware of hese other characteristics. If you insist upon knowing about them, they will rehearse them in answer to your questions; but for the children, these are among the things which are to be taken for granted, just as loving one's mother, and enjoying the fragrance of a sweet rose are. You do not have to proclaim them abroad to have it known that you possess these feelings.

So choose stories full of activities which the children can follow. If they possess good thought, mold the form to suit your purpose. If life be lacking, increase the activity, invent it. If a story be too long, shorten it by omitting unimportant details in the way of persons, events, and descriptions. If it be too complex, simplify it by centering everything about one character and making his movements the guiding thread throughout. Eliminate what is not needed to make clear his career or actions, but keep the details which are retained true to the story. In all the modifying, do not lose sight of the underlying thought for the sake of which the story first came into being; and furthermore remember that sometimes part of the interest or beauty of the story may be connected with certain aspects of the form. Where this is the case, retain the unchanged form, though compelled to modify the story in other ways. An example of what is meant is found in the story where certain phrases are repeated again and again, or where the story is cumulative in form as in "The house that Jack built."

Sometimes an incident or story is excellent in suggestiveness, but is too short, too condensed to be attractive and to serve the purpose. In this case the teacher must draw upon her creative genius and make over the material by adding details, explanations, characters, and actions. If once she learns to do this, she need never be at a loss for stories, for material is always at hand for their creation. The teacher has ever her laboratory present in which her products may be tested. The children in her school are her reagents, and they determine the success of the efforts.

In summing up what has been said in regard to the selection of stories, it may be stated that stories should be chosen for a definite purpose, and that the suitability of the story to further this purpose must be the determining factor in the choice. The story must be suited to the experience and comprehension of the children. It must be simple in thought, structure, and language, and must be full of life and activity. It may and should possess æsthetic and emotional elements, but not to excess, else the story will not appeal to the class and so will fail of the desired end. If the story is suitable in all respects save its form, the teacher should modify the latter to suit the occasion by lengthening it, or shortening it, or simplifying it, or by sup-

plying the needed elements. It may be necessary to translate into terms of the children's experience.

III

Of the many stories apparently adapted to meet a teacher's aim, which shall she choose to tell? Those which appeal to her; those with which she finds herself in sympathy; those whose humor, pathos, beauty, or moral worth she feels. Without this personal participation, she cannot hope to pass on the message to the class. She cannot, therefore, accept a story blindly upon hearsay evidence. She must examine it and discover her own attitude towards it. She will have hard work making it appear funny to others unless it first appear funny to her, for the contagion of mirth seems to originate in the spirit of the teller as well as in the story. It may be necessary to reject some stories permanently, or perhaps only temporarily, because with change of feeling the story may be found congenial.

The story should be studied carefully and the important parts discovered and fixed in mind. This does not mean memorizing so as to give a *verbatim* reproduction; but it means deciding what comes first, second, and so on, and determining the relatively more and less important parts so that the emphasis, the dramatic action may be suitably placed. Long stories can be divided into parts and be presented in sections from day to day without suffering any injury. The teller of the story must realize its structure and the value of what it contains before she can do justice to it in her rendition of it. All this assumes that she will tell it, not read it to her class. The use of the book eliminates dramatic action, nearly all of the changing expression of the face, and the influence of the eyes. A barrier is at once obtruded between teacher and class, and nearly all of the play of personality upon personality is cut off. *Tell* the story, using your own language save where for good reasons the book language should be preserved, as in reporting dialogs, commands, peculiar expressions, and the like.

It is often advisable, especially in the early work of story-telling, to rehearse the story beforehand so as to be quite at home in its rendition, to discover difficulties, and to fix the right use of words. When it is told in school, the story should be told to

the entire class and the teacher should see and be seen of everyone. It should be given with spontaneity, with fluency, with zest. There may and probably will be use of gesture, change of voice, and change of facial expression on the teacher's part, for she must make the story live before her class. Does a child falter in his attention, the telling of the story should be directed at him until interest compels attention. Think of the effect upon the story of stopping in the midst of it to correct some individual. Make the story do it.

The blackboard and chalk are great aids in making a story vivid. A teacher who is by no means a skilled artist can illustrate her stories sufficiently well to add to their attractiveness. How much skill does it take, for example, to draw the straw, the bean, and the coal of fire with some nimble looking legs and set them apparently walking across the blackboard? Suppose the story of "The Little Red Hen" is being narrated. If the teacher cannot draw a regular fence to enclose the barnyard, she can at least draw a rectangle with fairly straight lines, and draw some kind of a barn in it. A little practice in blackboard drawing will bring marked improvement. The figures of the little red hen, the pig, the duck, the cat, and the rat can be traced on paper and cut out beforehand. As they are introduced into the story one by one, they are put into the barnyard on the board with a very small touch of paste. A store of figures needed in stories can be accumulated, and used an indefinite number of times. The effect produced upon the children by the use of these aids is sufficient reward for the effort expended.

After the story is told, the class ought to be free to talk it over, to talk about the characters, to express their opinions. Instead of having the moral thrust upon them, they may be asked to tell what part they like best, and the teacher may tell what part she likes. In these conversations between herself and her class, the teacher can measure the effects and the success of her story. The children should frequently reproduce stories which they have heard from the teacher, and should be encouraged to tell them to members of the family at home. If some pupil is incoherent in his telling of the story, he may be aided by having him tell beforehand what he is going to talk about first, next, and so on. All the children should learn to give well ar-

range reproductions of stories, though this is the work of time.

One of the greatest pleasures connected with the story-telling is the dramatization or acting-out of the story. Something simple may be used for this purpose at first, but the children gradually grow used to longer and more complex narratives. The teacher may assign the parts and give directions, but the children can do it unaided. A manager may be appointed who gives out the parts and conducts the entire production, providing stage properties as needed. The pupils develop much skill in this kind of play and can offer keen criticisms of situations, acting, voice, language, and such matters. If the teacher can only learn to reduce herself to a guide, this sort of dramatization becomes an excellent opportunity for self-development and the exercise of initiative on the part of the children.

Other forms of expression used by the pupils are drawing, paper-cutting, and representation on the sand table. Not all of these forms are suited to every story, and some stories are not suitably represented by any of them and would much better be left to impression through the ear only. Where expression in any of these ways diminishes rather than increases the intended effect, then expression should be omitted.

Briefly stated, the teacher must be in sympathy with her story. She must study it, decide upon the best way to tell it, and if need be rehearse it. She must tell it with earnestness and zest to the whole class, and may call to her aid various devices to increase interest and heighten the effect. The story having been told, it may be discussed, reproduced, dramatized or represented in some other way suited to its nature and purpose.

THE SPECIAL CLASS—AN EXPERIMENT WITH MENTALLY DEFICIENT CHILDREN.

The "Special Class" had its origin in two needs. The first-grade teacher at the Speyer School of Teachers College discovered that among her band of small folks, there was a group of backward ones—those who needed more time and attention than the teacher of thirty children could give. At about the same time there developed among the students in the course in child study in Teachers College a need for practical work. The two needs met and the "Special Class" was the result.

The name given to the class was the subject of much thought. To call it a "Class for Defectives" would sound its doom at once, for what parent is ready to acknowledge that his child fails to reach the average in intellectual ability. But the "Special Class" might mean anything. To the children, it served to lend an air of delightful mystery to the group in the upper room set apart for us. One or two anxious mothers did arrive to find out why John or Mary was to go into the "Special Class," but upon the assurance of the principal that they were still to remain in their grade and that the only object of the special instruction was to help them to do better work, the mothers departed satisfied.

The one end in view was to be the development of the children. No limitation as to subject-matter or method was laid upon us. Especial emphasis was laid on the psychological aspect of the experiment. To this end a careful study of the limitations of each child was made under the guidance of the head of the Child Study course in the college. Each one of the groups of five workers thus had definitely in mind the field in which each child was weakest. Though these small boys and girls were labeled defective there was little to distinguish them from the ordinary children in the ordinary first grade. They belonged to the class defined by Dr. Naomi Norsworthy in her *Psychology of Mentally Deficient Children* as "differing from normal children in *degree of ability* in various fields," *not*, as she emphasizes, in *kind*. Therefore, the children differed only from normal children

in being below them in some one or more of the various fields of achievement. They presented an interesting variety of personalities. There was George,—a well cared for, sweet-faced child, very nervous and so awkward that he seldom walked across the room without knocking something down. Beside him sat Otto, the talker,—apparently bright, always with his hand in the air to signify his desire to talk. But when he was called on, it was generally discovered that he had forgotten what he wanted to say, or else said something irrelevant to the subject under discussion. Richard the silent came next,—a tiny fellow, head sunk on breast, apparently oblivious to all that went on. He never recognized the teacher's existence save by an occasional glance from his big eyes. We feared he was deaf because he apparently did not hear questions even when directed to him. Only by dint of most urgent persuasion could Richard be induced to contribute to any conversation. Another of the group was Laura. Laura was the questioner, the undecided one. She had no realization of any responsibility for decision on any matter, however simple, so long as it lay within the school realm. "Where shall I sit?" "What shall I do now?" "What is the matter with my work?" "Is this right?"—she was always asking for some one else to decide for her. Elsie, we discovered, was at home one of the "Little Mothers," cumbered with much serving. At school, her childish nature once more held sway, and her curls and ruffles seemed the only things of which she could think. Her companion, Elizabeth, was a high-strung, nervous child, very industrious, quick with her fingers, given to sudden bursts of violent weeping. Two more boys made up our group—Charles, a pleasant-faced, well behaved child, apparently bright, but very immature for his years; and John. John might have been fitly called "John, the Terror." There was an interesting uncertainty about John. He might appear and again he might not. For several weeks, he was to me unknown. My day seemed to be the one he chose in which to pursue his outside interests. This small, freckle-faced Irish lad had been in the second grade, but when it was discovered that John could read only one page in the First Reader, and that one because he knew it "by heart," John was again placed in the ranks of the first year. Poor John! Somewhere, even thus early, he had gained the idea that the world was against him. He did n't

like anything! The first enthusiasm of youth was gone at the age of six. The world of his contemporaries was far below him. He scorned the advances of the friendly teachers. John knew he was not a success in the school world, and he intended to be a big success at not being one.

Such was the make-up of our class. The work as organized provided for from one to two hours' teaching a week on the part of each one of the group of five undertaking the experiment. Many questions presented themselves for solution. What subject-matter would be best suited to the needs of the class? What modification of method was necessary because of the deficient mental development of the children? We found the general answer to these questions in the facts that these children lived in the same child-world as did their more normal playfellows; that the same general experience had in the past been theirs, that they must in the future find their joy in living in a similar world of thought and action. If the same needs were theirs, then the same subjectmatter ought to meet the needs of both, the same methods prove effective in the one case as in the other. If this be so, why separate them at all from their mates? The answer to this question lies in the impossibility of recognizing the weaker individuals in a large group. Here they were to be for at least one hour a day in a world of equals. Here was a chance for conquest, here a chance to show one's self a success, here an opportunity to lend a hand to some one else. Nothing so increases one's self-respect as to be able to give—to be necessary to some one.

The first few weeks were spent on the part of all the workers in an attempt to grasp the situation, to understand the problem, to determine on some plan of work to accomplish the desired result. The subject-matter was that of the first grade curriculum which centers about the home life. Each one of the group took for her share the kind of work which she felt she could best do. It was feared that the periods of visitation, being so far apart, would make the children feel confused and uncertain as to what and who we were. But their common sense, seemingly in no whit below that of the average child, asserted itself, and we were all labeled—"The Lady who Shows us how to Read"; "The Lady who Tells Stories"; "The Lady who Sews"; 'The Lady who Comes when we Write"; and the "Lady who Does Things."

In our choice of methods, we tried to test our theories as worked out in the Department of Elementary Education. These will be shown more specifically in the more concrete treatment of the special part of the work undertaken by the writer of this article. As I became somewhat better acquainted with the difficulties arising in my own share of the experiment, there grew upon me a strong feeling of the lack of unity in the isolated problems to which the children's attention had so far been directed. We were merely "making things." There was a need for some topic, large enough in its scope, to provide a central idea for the remainder of the year's work. In an attempt to decide on some phase of the chosen subject-matter, which would satisfy the demand, there came to my mind a former experiment worked out with two successive classes of first-year children. In my own mind, I had labeled it,—"A Study of Matters, Hygienic and Æsthetic, in Home-making." But the appreciation of essentials in home-making is rather an abstraction even to some "grown-ups" who are not called "defectives" and so with the babies, our work in the former department had been the "Making of a Doll-House." That the principles learned in this work were later applied to home conditions, I had reason for hoping from remarks dropped by some of the mothers.

So the "Making of a Doll-House" was decided upon as the work for the rest of the year. Could it be anything more than "mere making"? Could there be aroused a motive for the study which would reach out to other children? Having become much interested in the Babies' Hospital of New York City, my reflections led me to a visit to the matron. She said that the convalescent children would be delighted with a doll-house, should our children desire to prepare one for them. She also invited the "Special Class" to visit the Hospital and the babies.

A story about "My Visit to the Babies' Hospital" was prepared as an introduction to the project. The appeal to the children's sympathy for the little babies so lonely without their mothers brought a ready response, and we planned what we could do for them. Thus the children had their motive.

In considering the method of attacking the work, one aim was most prominent, to force (if necessary) upon each child as much independent thinking as possible, and in this thinking to emphasize certain essentials of the ideal home environment.

The product was *not* to be the most important thing, and yet each bit of work was to be the child's best in order to establish certain ideals as to execution. Every step was to be discussed by the children with as little suggestion from the teacher as was consistent with the end in view.

As this work was not a consideration of the problem of house construction, but an effort to gain some few ideas of home-making, we felt perfectly free to accept the suggestion that our flat be made of boxes. Three of uniform size were selected and the doors and windows were cut by the kindly janitor. So our "three rooms and a bath" was soon ready for the infant house-furnishers. If there entered into the mind of any embryo matron a desire to have a house of her own, the materials could easily be found. The children discussed "which room shall be furnished first?" with the hope in the mind of the leader of establishing some idea of the relative necessity of the "lovely" parlor and the clean kitchen. As suggestions were offered, an attempt was made to have the children criticize each other's contributions. The teacher tried to refrain from always being the one to say "Yes, that's right" or "You're wrong." The children also made their own decision as to what articles were needed for the kitchen. They also tried to arrive at some conclusion as to what qualities made a kitchen chair a good one. The following is their statement of these qualities. "It must be strong so that you can sit on it." "It must be easy to keep clean, and look nice." Is n't this akin to the dictum of William Morris,—"Have nothing in your house which you do not know to be useful, and believe to be beautiful"? The children planned the colors for the different rooms within certain limits made necessary by the possibility of obtaining material. The material used was a heavy cover paper. It was of so heavy a quality that the pieces of doll furniture made from it were sufficiently substantial to be in harmony with the mimic household for whom the habitation was designed.

One of the critics of the plan urged the use of wood rather than paper as lending greater permanence to the articles made. The fact that furniture in real life was made out of wood was also put forward as an argument for its use. The justification for the use of the paper lies in my own mind in the following:

1. Had wood been used, the increased difficulties in the use

of a less pliable substance would have led to an emphasis on the doing. In an effort to get things done, in the short amount of time available, the thinking and planning, the effort to *originate* would have been crowded to the wall.

2. This work did not pretend to be a study of furniture-making. Had it been that, neither the construction of a doll-chair out of a cubical block and an oblong one, nor the folding of a chair from a square of paper would have been a legitimate part of such a study.

3. The lack of permanence in an object is no impediment to a child's joy or interest in his own creation,—a paper windmill, with its power to go, has the essential element,—a chair on which a doll can sit *is a chair.*

4. The material chosen is one easily provided at home, and the work thus started in the school is carried over into the home.

Tentative plans for fourteen pieces of furniture, among which were a bed, a dining-room table, a bureau, a wash-stand, and a covered box for storing bedding, were worked out by the teacher. These were not to be imitated by the children. The first few lessons were necessarily in the nature of dictations, though not entirely so. There was an effort made to give the children insight into the possibilities that lay in the square of paper folded into sixteen smaller squares. The sheets of paper were cut in different sizes to keep the various articles made in a true proportion to each other. We tried to avoid a dressing-table smaller than the chairs, and kindred undesirable results. Of course the small workers might have been left entirely to their own experiments even in the beginning, but *experimentation to be educative must be directed.* So their attention was directed to the fact that we always began with the same folding, and that out of this beginning, we could make almost any article desired. At each advancing lesson, the work became more the child's own. If a table was to be made, he must decide whether the top of the table was as large as the top of the stove, and how the difference in size could be provided for in the folding and cutting. Toward the close of the work the problem was stated, and each child formulated his own individual plan of work. "We need several bookcases and cupboards. Which one will you make and how will you plan for it."

In work of this sort too much emphasis cannot be laid on the value of a relative rather than an absolute standard of criticism. Each child's work was compared with a "child's best" not with the teacher's model. Each child was encouraged to compare his new work with that previously done by himself. Any advance in skill was made much of. Ever open to suggestion, the little ones were quick to express their appreciation of any gain. "Elizabeth's good chair" was much admired, and the verdict of Otto that, "George does n't stop to *think* before he cuts," made a deep impression on the hasty one of our family. If any child insisted that his was the right way, and the only way, he was urged to try his idea, to see if it really worked out; when he had failed, he was ready to take advice. If such experimentation so interfered with the work of all that it could not be allowed, the matter was laid before the children, that they might see its impossibility. In the freedom of discussion which was encouraged, it was found necessary to emphasize for the sake of the less self-assertive ones the duty of sharing the time for speech. Certain simple rules as to talking were formulated with the help of the children,—"You must wait for your turn." "You must think the answer in your head, before you speak." "You must try to answer every question so that if the others do not know, you may help them."

In the class as a social organization, much opportunity was found for developing the self dependence so lacking in most of the children. No places at the table were assigned. Of course two sometimes wanted the same chair, but when it was understood that they must decide the matter, and must not keep the rest waiting, they usually found a way to settle conflicting claims. The charge of the room was in their hands. Those who came in first arranged the table and chairs. They took care of all material after each lesson. I tried to refrain from doing anything which they could as well do, and in the doing would have some opportunity for thinking. As an illustration of this, I recall the action they took in regard to a pretty table cover provided for them by one of the classes in domestic art. They admired it greatly, asked where it came from, and then one of them said: "My! we must take this off while we work, so it won't get spoiled." So *they* folded it up, and decided on a good place for its safe keeping.

How about our motive? Was it holding through the longer period? The leader felt that it must not be overworked, so refrained from mentioning it herself, but the children constantly referred to it. They felt it to be the reason for all the thinking and doing. "Will the babies like this?" "Are we really going to see them, and take the doll-house?" These and similar remarks came in every lesson. At last after four months the house was completed and plans must be made for our visit to the hospital. These too were discussed and settled with the children, and one afternoon in June, we set out, accompanied by three boys of the fourth grade, who smiled with sympathetic superiority on the work of the "little kids," as they started off with the boxes making up our house. When we arrived at the hospital, we were placed in charge of a nurse, who took us to the sun room on the top floor,—the house-top play room. Here we left the doll-house as a surprise to the babies when they came up to play. Then we followed the nurse to the floors below, when the little, mentally deficient children saw the provisions made for their little, physically deficient neighbors.

Our year's work was over and on the way home we had our "class luncheon" (Ten-cent dishes of ice-cream instead of five-cent ones! was the rapturous remark of one small maiden). Did this detract from the educational value of the experiment? Not if Stevenson is right when he says: "There is an idea abroad among moral people that they should make their neighbors good. One person I have to make good; myself. But my duty to my neighbor is much more nearly expressed by saying that I have to make him happy—if I may." Had the work been productive of any good? In some of the children, certain changes were apparent to those who had followed them through the year. As the workers had been as one in the sympathetic interest, the careful planning, and the constant outlook for awakening power, these changes were due to this united effort.

Some of these changes may be briefly indicated as they manifested themselves in the work outlined in the preceding pages. First, and perhaps most important of all, was the growth of a vital interest in something connected with school life,—a change in the attitude toward the school. John perhaps showed this advance more than any other child in the class. He

had been utterly opposed to doing anything that anyone wanted him to do. He was antagonistic in every line of his sturdy little figure. We all entered into a conspiracy to win John, to make him feel that he was a necessity in our work. On all of his acts, we insisted upon placing the best possible construction, until at last John almost began to believe that he was not the bad boy of the class, but a very important addition to it. The teacher's attitude changed that of his companions and John was regarded in a more friendly light. The day when he did so well that he was requested to help George marked the turning point in John's attitude toward us, and though he was still irregular in attendance and effort, we never again met a wall of antagonism.

A second change was the development in the minds of some of the children of a consciousness of some particular thing for which they must strive. Great was the rejoicing one day when the ever-talking small boy of the class solemnly dropped his head in his hands, saying, "I've got to think before I talk."

Thirdly, there showed on the part of some a growing sense of responsibility as to their duty to help make their little world what it should be. The fact that on the day of the entrance of the irrepressible John, he was made by the forceful remarks of two of the other small boys to stop kicking the table impressed the "Terror" as no command from the teacher could have done. This attempt to help wisely showed itself in Elizabeth's response to the hopeless, helpless Elsie, "You go ahead, and I'll help you."

Fourthly, there was a development of individuality—that self-assertion which is the first step toward social efficiency. These children had been lost in the multitude. Here, in the smaller group, they had found themselves. Great was the joy on the day when the taciturn Richard broke forth as does the babbling brook. The children sat back in undisguised wonder as the hitherto silent boy monopolized the conversation. We had thought him deaf, so unconscious of his surroundings had he appeared. Curious to see how far this awakening consciousness would lead him, all of his teachers watched him for a while with no interference in his development. In his sudden insistence on his own way and own ideas, he grew rather troublesome. A small boy who sits dumbly before you, objecting to nothing, is really very little trouble as compared with the wide-awake

one who has plans of his own which may interfere with those of his teacher. But natural conditions soon combined to modify Richard's new tendencies so that they were kept within bounds, and our philosophy could make us rejoice that Richard was alive.

With some of the children we seemed to have accomplished little good. We had not found "the point of contact." Two of the class were promoted to the second grade. Three are this year doing fair work in the first. Three of the group have left the Speyer School.

What had the work meant to the teacher?

First, a strengthening of the belief that no one could with any certainty set the limits to any child's possible development, and that a large part of one's work as a teacher is the study of each child's lacks and possibilities.

Secondly, a strengthening also in the belief that the hope of development lies in the demand for it, that, to a large extent, the child thinks as much as is demanded of him, that to the extent some one else does his thinking for him he will remain dependent in thought and consequently in action.

H. M. R.

CONSTRUCTIVE WORK WITH MATERIALS GATHERED BY THE CHILDREN

A common excuse given by teachers for their omission of hand work is that they have difficulty in getting material for their needs. The purpose of this paper is to show that much may be done with materials gathered largely by the children themselves.

Our interests often arise out of our needs and our efforts to supply them. My interest in construction work with all sorts of available materials began with the necessity of providing employment for a good many pairs of hands with whatever usable materials offered themselves. This experience came to me on taking charge of the lower grade work in a beautiful new school-building that was wholly unfurnished and unprovided with the least adornment.

As the children came to the primary grades of the new school from various public schools and from the surrounding rural schools, it was a somewhat difficult task at first to fit them into the right groups for the work in reading, arithmetic, and language. They could best learn to work together through hand work, of which even the simplest kind was new to most of them. Moreover there were the beginners, who had never had to sit still in their lives. Plainly it was necessary to provide suitable occupation for these active hands. And there was the need of converting that large, bright, bare room into a school home. How was it all to be done?

The teacher was glad of every scrap of material she had in her possession—paper, cloth, yarn,—and believed the old adage, "Keep a thing seven years and you will at last find use for it." The one picture put in place looked lonesome on that great stretch of untinted wall. The children's pleasure in looking at it led to a talk on the desirability of having more pictures. The third grade children were quick to take suggestions, and unframed pictures began to come in from the homes, among them a good many taken from Sunday editions of city newspapers, when they were reproducing some good things from

the Art Institute. From the lot, we selected some pictures of animals and of flowers, and went to work to frame them with paper foldings. A little boy in the first grade came to school from a paper mill three miles in the country and brought rolls of white and colored paper that served for the framing and many other purposes in the three grades. We gathered the bright autumn leaves, pressed them and made a border just above the blackboard.

By Thanksgiving time a great basket had been covered with the simple paper foldings of the second grade and filled with dried grasses, bright sprays of maple and sumac leaves and scarlet berries, and the sand table represented a scene which told the story of "Over the river and through the wood to grandfather's house we go," constructed by the younger children. "The horse" and "the sleigh" filled with people, "grandfather's house" and "the white and drifted snow" all showed what busy interested small folk like to do with pasteboard boxes and bits of paper. The sand table itself was an improvised convenience, which did duty for months. A common kitchen table was used for a foundation with a huge pan made of many thicknesses of strong wrapping paper that would hold sand, if not water. Before the year was over, when material of the usual kind had been supplied, it seemed to me that our pioneer days had at least made us realize the pleasure that comes from having a united interest in providing for daily needs.

The term constructive work will be used here in the broad sense, to mean the various occupations that may be introduced into the schoolrooms of the lower grades, and will include the making, building, collecting, and arranging done in connection with these occupations as they were carried out.

The two main sources for securing material for this unconventional kind of constructive work are the home and nature. The home source is the first to be considered with the smallest child, who is fresh from the activities of the home life and needs to carry on those same activities to some degree in the schoolroom. Perhaps he has been allowed the full measure of a child's privilege in really helping to make home "a succession of well-performed tasks from day to day"; or maybe he has never been called upon to add his mite of effort in a definite way and has longed to try his hand at grown-up people's work. One bright

little fellow of six years who had been in school a few weeks said, "I wish there was ever anything at *home* to do." Domestic activities that may be easily introduced in the lowest grades, where the number of children is not too large to handle in such work, are cooking, washing dishes, setting the table, ironing, washing, sweeping, and dusting. The materials needed here, those used in daily operations, are usually easy to obtain from the home,—food stuffs, dishes, pieces of cloth, and the like.

A first grade whose members had had little or no kindergarten training needed much to realize the satisfaction not only of making things with the hands but of doing things in response to situations in real life. For a time much of the work of these children centered around these home interests. They brought dishes, some dolls' sets among them, small brooms, and other useful toys; and they borrowed some articles from their mothers. They learned to set a table, fold napkins nicely, wash dishes, cook simple things like rice and apple sauce, pop corn, spread sandwiches, prepare stuffed dates, clean up after each lesson, and keep their things in order. After a while the little housekeepers served a lunch to the other grades once in two weeks. At Christmas time the second grade made fancy boxes enough so that they might exchange some of them for candy and stuffed dates to take home. On Valentine's Day, on the occasion of a room party, the third grade surprised the little housekeepers with aprons which they had made for them from gingham and calico brought from home or bought with money they had earned for this purpose.

Another time the first grade children were interested in weaving. They first made doll-rugs for doll-houses made of shoe-boxes which they were furnishing. These rugs were woven on simple home-made looms. When these small rugs were finished, the grade undertook the weaving of a rug for the schoolroom. This was spool weaving. The children brought their empty spools and yarns of different colors. The making of this rug proved to be a big task, as sixty-four small mats were needed to compose the large one, forty inches long by thirty-two inches wide. However, the work was so fascinating and the motive so attractive that the children worked busily day after day. The other grades of the department contributed to the supply of yarn and became so much interested in the rug that

they helped by working at home toward the end of the process. The first grade children had been denied the privilege of taking this work home,—even the boy who begged hard to take his because he "did n't have anything to do at home but just sit around and do nothing." The rug completed was a pretty and useful ornament in the schoolroom.

The second grade had looked with wistful eyes at the first grade while they did their weaving, and felt that they, too, might make something for the schoolroom. A timid little girl in the class who seldom asserted her preferences ventured to tell the teacher how much she enjoyed such work, saying that "a person hates to get too old to weave and do things." The new rocker, intended specially for the visiting mothers, would be more comfortable with a cushion. The second grade children were very willing to undertake the making of one. They brought scraps of wool and silk cloth which they cut into squares and tacked to a smaller square lining, folding the sides of the upper square to make the puffy effect. It was entertaining for a long time to pick out their own dresses and those of their relatives as they hung over the rocker. Another second grade brought old woolen cloth which they tore or cut into long strips and braided a mat for the schoolroom. By combining a strand of black with bright ones the result was a very good mixture of colors. This was a substantial rug.

At one time the primary department was supplied with a pile of old magazines, many of them containing good pictures. The third grade cut the pictures from these for the purpose of making a series of scrap-books for daily use. We decided to classify the cuttings under different heads and labeled a set of boxes, into which we put them, "Birds," "Animals," "Great People and Places," "Children," and "Fun." This work extended over several weeks and attracted the attention of the different grades, so that they constantly contributed to the collection. The pictures were mounted on single sheets of heavy gray cardboard, bound on the edges with bright Holland, formerly much used for window shades. Two children worked together on a sheet, arranging a page of the pictures to suit them and then pasting them in place. It is hard to tell which of these books proved to be the most popular. The "Funny Book," with its humorous pictures, rhymes, and jokes of the

good kind, was much worn in time. Later these children bound a set of books, made by putting together the Thanksgiving stories, stories of animals, and so on, from four years' numbers of the *Little Folks' Magazine*, which were losing their identity as magazines and needed to be saved. They brought cloth for the covers and made a nice set of books. One little girl, especially fond of books, who did most of the sewing of the leaves in her book and all the work on the cover, was much pleased with her result and danced about the room exclaiming, "I can bind a book. I can bind a book."

Parties are important features of schoolroom life, for children delight in preparing for them, through their own devised plans and manipulations. One of these enjoyable occasions may be at Easter time. Children prepare for the Easter party by saving egg-shells for some weeks previous to the day. The people at home are glad to break the eggs carefully enough so that the shells shall be almost whole. Our three grades succeeded in saving over a hundred shells one spring, not counting those that were broken on the way to school. The older children dyed and painted several dozen of these and had the room decorated with great nests made of excelsior filled with the gorgeously colored eggs. The younger children made egg dolls for the department by putting a dainty tissue-paper bonnet on an egg that had been provided with features.

There is real value in schoolroom exhibits for children, teacher, and parents; not in the fixed up and fixed over display in which the crude work of the child has been retouched and remodeled till his effort is all but effaced, but in the everyday kind, that may be merely a simple arrangement of every child's work in such a way that each one may enjoy the work of the others, and perhaps measure his results by those of others to his profit. The parents get an idea of the class work as a whole through these exhibits of daily work. One kind of exhibit that is attractive and helpful to children is that representing scenes in the lives of people who live in distant parts of the world. Our second grade children built up a very creditable desert scene, preparing at school paper patterns for camels, which they had made of dough at home, tents, the Arab's dress, and gay trappings for the horses.

An unusual kind of school exhibit within my experience

deserves mention here. The suggestion for this exhibit was the outgrowth of the teacher's explanation to the third grade of the reason why two boys of the class were frequently late. One came a long way to school from the country and had work to do every morning before he started. The other had to help his mother, a woman who went out to daily service. The teacher rather commended the boys for their helpfulness and added the thought that probably these boys could do more things and make more things than most boys of their age. Whereupon the children wanted to tell what they did at home, what they could make, and so on. The result of the talk was the plan for an exhibit of pieces of work thought of and made by themselves in two weeks' time. We had to alter the first stipulation and in some cases let parents do a little suggesting. An announcement of the exhibit was placed upon the blackboard with requirements stated. Everything presented must be useful,—"good-for-something," Harry said,—and preferably something they had made before or had wanted to make. The completed array showed the following pieces of work: Harness for a dog made of strips cut from old trousers, with the mother's permission. Bird house (good) for which "father sawed just two pieces." Bow and arrows. Indian head-dress of feathers. Basket of fine kindlings. Tea cakes. Doll's dress, skirt, and apron. Work basket made from a pasteboard box. Gingham apron. Half a dozen well ironed napkins. Crocheted cap for doll. A letter case. Box partitioned for a collection of coins. Sandwiches (nut and lettuce) suggested by the mother as a treat for the class after the exhibit.

In introducing nature as the second direct great source of material to be wrought upon in the schoolroom, one who has had easy access to this storehouse feels that it is a great advantage to be able to call upon its resources almost at will. There is comfort in the words of a great nature-study teacher who, in addressing an assembly of teachers largely from cities, made the statement that nature is everywhere, and shows her usable products when we are eager and ready to find them. Perhaps in no way is a teacher's influence more directly reflected in her pupils than through her appreciation of nature's resources and their varied uses to us.

The list of native materials convertible into legitimate con-

structive work for the lower grades is a long one, and includes:

Grasses of many kinds.
Sedget.
Cat-tails and cat-tail leaves.
Reeds and rushes.
Birch bark and other bark.
Willow-twigs.
Foliage leaves (particularly autumn leaves).
Pine needles.
Milkweed pods, and other pods.
Corn husks and corn cobs.
Berries.

The gathering of the outdoor products is in itself a good feature connected with this work. Anyone who has gone nutting, berrying, or wild-grape hunting can appreciate the children's joy in discovering the best spot for the thing they are in quest of, and in being able to make a big load of whatever they are collecting. Boys, especially, soon find out where the cat-tails are tallest, where an old birch tree stands that will yield its bark, where milkweed pods grow thickest, and where bitter-sweet berries may be reached by climbing. Most of these products should be gathered in late summer and early fall, and put away for use as the vegetables and nuts are stored for coming months. One fall when a quantity of corn husks was needed, the primary children were interested in saving and drying those from the roasting ears at home and later in gathering from fields and barns, till we had two barrels full in the basement. Our little storeroom came in time to show a goodly store of bundles of grasses, rushes, etc., when the fall harvesting was over.

The frontspiece shows a number of objects made from birch bark, corn husks, rushes, sedges, and cat-tail leaves, selected for the picture to show the variety of native materials to be obtained in a certain locality rather than with the thought of indicating the uses of these materials for correlated purposes. Their possibilities for use are many. A few of the ways in which they are needed in school may be mentioned. Decorative purposes have been noted. Christmas cards and calendars adorned with the pressed autumn leaves, ferns, and pansies made pretty gifts in the second and third grades. The regular lessons in

nature-study, history, and language, at least, are well supplemented by the constructive work from native materials. In the first grade study of *Hiawatha*, the children gathered the material and made birch-bark canoes, Indian necklaces of acorns, thorn apples, and rose hips, and mats of rushes and cattail leaves woven into thick wrapping paper.

The second grade closed their seed work one fall with a seed party, for which they decorated the room with clusters of berries, ears of corn, festoons of wild cucumber pods, and made exhibits of their seed collections. A county fair had attracted the children that fall and they were in the spirit to put up their exhibits to show to the best advantage. Nature's provision for holding things was depended upon. Scooped out gourds, orange rinds, pods, and curled up leaves were filled with various kinds of seeds. The seed refreshments, pop-corn and native hazel nuts, were served on plates furnished by the thick, curled leaves of the Balm of Gilead.

A quantity of hemp stalks gathered at this time provided employment for the younger children at recess time on rainy days, when they threshed out the hemp seed for the room canary.

Through the stories of early American history the third grade children learned the many uses the Indians made of corn husks and how the Indian boy made a canoe. Each child chose something the Indians had used that he thought he could make well of corn husks, and we had ropes, mats, baskets of different kinds, beds, and other things. We found that corn husks take dye nicely and we succeeded in getting some good Indian colors for the things that needed two or more colors. Then each child was to make a small canoe as nearly after the Indian way as he could. In the art work they made Indian vessels of clay, decorating them appropriately, and they designed covers for the written work on the subject. All of this work was to form a room exhibit when the canoes should be finished.

The time allowed for the making of the canoes was three weeks and the work was to be done out of school. Progress of work was reported each Monday and Thursday morning. The accounts of efforts were interesting in the extreme. Various trips were made to the woods and wood piles carefully searched for "logs" suitable for canoes. Every child but one tried to

make a hollow by burning out the stick, having the help of a parent, or at least the permission to use fire. No one was to see another's canoe till they were all finished. As they appeared one at a time, well concealed in paper, the curiosity of the children rose high. The results were characteristic of the children. Among those made by the boys were Emanual's very small, rather shapeless one that showed a good degree of honest effort on a poorly chosen piece of wood; Frank's little flat boat, conspicuous for its thick coat of red paint; Harland's substantial, well proportioned birch bark structure that looked like his sturdy self; Raymond's shapely, artistic creation; Ray's three earnest but rather unsuccessful attempts at canoe making that showed improvement only in size; Harold's attempt to do something beyond his skill; and Willard's carefully made, well finished product that the children pronounced "a real one." The girls of the class were not so successful as the boys, but had excelled the boys in the corn husk work. Marian's father said she had toiled three days to get her canoe hollowed out sufficiently, and was almost satisfied with the result when she forgot to put out the fire on going to dinner, and afterwards found her canoe burned beyond repair. She went to work on a second piece, but this was hard maple, that burned slowly, and at the end of the allotted time Marian amused the class as she came in a little late carrying her heavy burden, which looked like a stick of stove wood slightly charred. The children would have given way to their desire to laugh if Marian's earnestness had not prevented this and turned their feelings rather to admiration for her pluck.

The girls arranged the corn husk work for the exhibit and the boys half filled the sand table tank with water and set their canoes afloat. The teacher's rather pretentious looking canoe was the only one that proved unseaworthy. It was quite generally decided that Willard's canoe deserved the prize (bought by each member of the class contributing one cent). Willard had moved three hundred miles away a few days before the exhibit and had to be told by several letters that he was the victorious one.

The canoes were used at the annual picnic of the primary department in June on the river bank, and afforded great enjoyment.

For the dramatization of some scenes in primitive life the children were all called into service. The youngest ones filled great bags with dry leaves. These were eagerly called for after the play for the chicken houses at home. They also made drinking vessels out of gourds, and strung shells. Others tied the red gauze saved from the fall fruit baskets around the cat-tail heads that were to serve for torches, made cradles out of bark, and spread beds of reindeer moss and dry leaves; while others fashioned baskets out of willow twigs and birch bark.

In the geographical nature-study work children's communications with different parts of the country may lead to satisfactory results, and this may be brought about through exchange of interesting native materials. These northern children needed some direct information on orange and lemon raising when they were studying fruits brought to them from a distance. They filled a box with the dry, silvery reindeer moss, with alder berries, of which Lowell says, "With coral beads the grim black alders shine," and with autumn leaves, mounted and labeled—all of which were sent to a child in Southern California, who in return sent them orange blossoms, green and ripe fruit, beautiful shells from the ocean beach, and a fine description of her father's nursery where oranges and lemons were grown. The northern children then wrote about the fruit raised in their region, the blueberry and the much valued cranberry. In return for descriptions, drawings of winter sports, and samples of sleds and toboggans, a school in Texas sent these children pecan nuts right from the trees, cotton boles, sugar cane, and rice straw.

After children have gathered and worked with the products of their part of the country and appreciate somewhat their possibilities they are ready to compare them with those from other parts of the country and from other countries and to learn about the many uses of fibers in the industries. These northern children were surprised and happy to know that the sedges like those they gathered are collected in great quantity and made into rugs and cushions and rope in a factory in St. Paul, Minnesota, and that a matting factory in Maine makes strong matting out of rushes. They found out that brooms are made from broom corn that grows in Kansas, that linen thread is made from the flax fiber. They marvelled at learning that the great Grass Family is so important in different parts of the

world, that the northern Indians make their beautiful baskets of it, and in a warm country where one kind grows thick and tall the natives make a fish trap of the split stems, and that another kind is used so much to make fine straw hats that the people call it the Panama Hat Family.

It is always gratifying to a teacher to have the boys and girls whom she has started in the educational career come back to her from the upper grades and from the high school and recall to her the events of the early school-days that are still vivid in their minds. Perhaps the good times best remembered, along with the good stories, are in connection with making things for a vital purpose.

J. R F.

ALUMNI DEPARTMENT

Committee of the Alumni on Publication

Ernest N. Henderson, Ph.D., 1903, Chairman.
Adelphi College, Brooklyn.
Ellen Yale Stevens, Diploma, 1893.
Brooklyn Heights Seminary, 18 Pierrepont St., Brooklyn.
Emily Brinckerhoff Brown, Diploma, 1901.
Bretton Hall, Broadway and 86th St., New York City.
Ruth E. Dowling, B.S., 1903.
New York Training School for Teachers, New York City.

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The Department of Education at the University of Washington.
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Teachers College Alumni Luncheon.—The mid-winter luncheon of Teachers College Alumni Association was held at the Hotel St. Andrew on February the sixteenth at one o'clock. Over one hundred were present, including members of the faculty, members of the association and their friends

The speakers of the occasion were Dr. Smith, the head of the department of mathematics in Teachers College, Mrs. Woolman, the head of the department of domestic art, Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the State

Board of Charities, Dr. Burks, director of the Albany Training School for Teachers, and Dean Russell.

The luncheon was a most social affair, small groups of friends making up the various tables and visiting informally from table to table between courses. Mr. Reeder, the president of the Association, acted as toastmaster and introduced the speakers in his most happy vein.

Dr. Smith, who was first presented, made a clever distinction between the "after-dinner speech" and the "speech after dinner." His own address on "The Future of Teachers College" combined the wit of the former with the wisdom of the latter. He suggested new lines of progress for the Teachers College schools; that the Horace Mann School continue to be not only the "best preparatory school in the country" but that equally strong technical courses should be offered for the benefit of the boys and the girls whose inclination and whose future career would in all probability be better served by this more practical training. He further proposed that the Speyer School be made something more than a great experimental field and more than an uplifting influence in its immediate vicinity; that its equipment for settlement work be made so complete that it should serve as a guide and an inspiration to workers in similar fields all over the country; that an educational museum be fully equipped, the best that the country affords, and that this museum be established not alone for the sake of the Speyer School and for the instruction of the chance visitor, but for the benefit of education at large, through the wide circulation of the material gathered by it.

In regard to Teachers College itself, Dr. Smith expressed himself as strongly in favor of a "twentieth-century education for women"—a training in domestic science and in domestic art that should be a part of the equipment of every woman upon whom the comfort and happiness of the home depends. He advocated even a higher standard of scholarship than that required to-day of our candidates for degrees and diplomas, and, for others, a letting down of barriers that all might enter who were fitted to take up special lines of work; that such students should leave the college not with its diploma or with its degree, but with that more vital possession, its spirit of service, which is unconsciously absorbed by all of its students and which in the years to come reveals itself in a truer appreciation of the dignity of the profession of the teacher and in a fuller understanding of its responsibilities.

Dr. Smith expressed in eloquent words the faith and belief of every member of the faculty, of every graduate, and of the student body individually, that the college, though great in what it has accomplished in the past, though a center of inspiration to-day, has only commenced its task—that its "golden age" lies in the future.

Mr. Folks, who followed Dr. Smith, spoke briefly of the need of cooperation between the teacher and the social worker. He said that both must go back to the home in order to understand the problems which confront them and which, for the most part, resolve themselves into the great problem of the betterment of the living conditions of the people;

that circumstances making for poverty, for ignorance and for crime are not beyond our reach, but that in the work of regeneration the individual must be saved through an understanding of, and a sympathy with, the home, which is the true unit, and apart from which no education for the individual is possible.

The next speaker on the program was Mrs. Woolman, an alumna of Teachers College, a member of the faculty, one who has been closely identified with the institution since the days of its humble birth in "Number Nine, University Place," and manager of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls.

Mrs. Woolman spoke of the beginnings of techincal training in the school when Teachers College was simply the "Industrial Education Association." She said that the training of teachers for this work was practically forced upon the institution, owing to the demand in the neighborhood for technical instruction and to the fact that no teachers were prepared to meet this demand. From this small beginning industrial education has grown apace until it has come to occupy a prominent position among the various lines of activity of the college.

Mrs. Woolman distinguished between the technical worker and the trade worker, emphasizing the fact that trade demands the worker trained for trade—the purely practical and not the practical sacrificed in part to the theoretical. She said, too, that the Manhattan Trade School endeavors to fulfill its mission—that of giving instruction in the trades that offer the greatest opportunities for girls, and of giving this instruction as trade requires even to the point of disregarding certain ideals of education. She emphasized the fact that the untrained girl who enters the school must learn to think for her herself, must develop skill, and above all must be trustworthy before she is considered a finished product of the institution. She maintained that such workers are in demand and have no difficulty in earning more than a living wage; that they are thus saved from the poverty and the idleness that lead almost inevitably to wrong doing; that the worker herself is clearly benefited by such training; that the business world has the advantage that results from skilled labor, and that the country, through the increase of home manufacture, draws proportionally more upon the home market.

Dean Russell's address on "The Past Ten Years of the College" was particularly apropos—the present year marking the tenth anniversary of his connection with the institution. The Dean spoke with deep feeling of the changes in the faculty during this period, and with sincere appreciation of the loyalty and the devotion of each of its members during his term of office. He ascribed to the trustees of the college the position which it holds to-day, secured by their faith in the institution and in its ideals—a faith which persisted through every crisis—and by their untiring efforts in its behalf. He emphasized the fact that the work of the alumni in carrying abroad the spirit of the college and in establishing its ideals is a service the value of which can not be measured; that this work is being done not only throughout the length and breadth of our country, but in

China, in the Philippines, in Turkey, in New Zealand, in Australia and in many other parts of the globe as well. The Dean said that teachers' colleges, modelled upon the plan of Teachers College, Columbia University, are being established in different parts of the country and that our system is considered worthy of study abroad as well as at home. He announced that the college, including also the college schools, has had an enrollment of twenty-five thousand names during the past ten years; that, the average stay of each student being two years, approximately nine thousand students have been in touch with the institution during this period; that of this number about four thousand have been in residence. Of these students one hundred and fifty-six are at present teaching in colleges and universities, twenty-one are superintendents, one hundred and two are instructors in normal schools, five hundred and seventeen are supervisors, six hundred and fourteen are teachers in secondary schools, three hundred and nineteen in elementary schools, forty-four are superintendents or directors in hospitals and twenty-four are pursuing educational work in other fields.

The Dean made several announcements in regard to the financial condition of the college, showing a growth as remarkable as that in academic lines. Ten years ago the plant and buildings were valued at a little more than a million dollars. To-day they are worth two million, five hundred thousand dollars. Ten years ago the College had no endowment and a debt of two hundred and thirty thousand dollars. To-day Teachers College is free from debt and has an endowment of one million one hundred thousand dollars. The enthusiasm aroused by the Dean's address was indicative of the appreciation with which his administration is regarded and also of the strong interest which is felt in the prosperity of the college.

As a finale, Mr. Burks, a former student of Teachers College, and at present director of the Albany Training School for Teachers, spoke for the alumni. After many witticisms at the expense of the faculty he expressed the sincere gratitude of the entire body of the alumni, individually and collectively, for all that Teachers College means to its students, past and present.

The reunion was, from all points of view, a decided success. It was pervaded by that indefinable spirit which made all rejoice that they were in some measure a part of Teachers College.

CLARA B. KIRCHWEY,
Sec'y Alumni Association.

Religious Education—A New Field for Educational Effort.—A new field for educational effort is opening. The Sunday-school of one New York City church, the Madison Square Presbyterian, last fall secured an entire corps of paid teachers from Teachers College. Not infrequently one or more teachers are employed in New York churches to fill certain special positions—as kindergartner, teacher of normal class, adult Bible class, etc. Within the past year, the College has been asked to fill four positions as "superintendent of religious education" with persons who

could devote their whole time to the direction of the educational and allied activities of some church, on regular salary. Two of these positions were in New England, one in New York, and one in Chicago.

There are, therefore, indications of a new type of educational position to which students of Teachers College may well give their attention. Teachers College is already affording two courses in direct preparation for such positions: Education 51–52, Sunday-school Instruction, and Biblical Literature 1–2. The work in Elementary Education, Educational Psychology, etc., bears immediately, of course, upon the problems involved.

In this connection should be mentioned, too, the "Model Sunday-school at Teachers College" which, without any official relation whatever to the College, has grown up in the last four or five years under the direction of Teachers College professors. It meets in the College Chapel at 10:30 A. M. Sundays. The time will apparently come when there will be as direct a demand for teachers of religious education as in other educational fields.

Early in January a conference on the problems of moral and religious education was held in the chapel of the college under the auspices of the Religious Education Association. This association, which is non-sectarian, is composed of college professors, Sunday-school teachers, and others engaged in giving moral and religious instruction. At this meeting, at which Rev. Milton S. Littlefield, the State director, presided, President W. H. P. Faunce of Brown University, who is also president of the association, delivered an address on "The Material of Religious Education"; Professor Richard M. Hodge of Columbia University discussed the principles of modern education applied to the Sunday-school, and the Rev. Henry F. Cope of Chicago University spoke on the work of the Religious Education Association.

Letter from Speyer School to Teachers College Alumni Association.

Speyer School, 94 Lawrence St.,
New York, Feb. 7, 1907.

To the Members of the Teachers College Alumni Association:

The Alumni Society of Speyer School, and the House Council of Speyer Neighborhood Work, have appointed us as a Library Committee to express to you their appreciation for the yearly support which your Alumni Association gives our Library, which is fittingly called the Teachers College Alumni Library. We enclose a circular descriptive of Speyer School. We add the following report about the Library:

The Library now contains about 2600 volumes. Its total circulation last year was 17,100; the average daily circulation is about sixty-five. In addition the Library receives twenty-three papers and magazines, and 615 copies of these were borrowed for outside reading. Besides this circulation in the neighborhood, the books are constantly used in the upper grades: the Eighth grade alone used forty-five volumes during January. Four "reading circles," with a membership of about twelve

each, meet in the reading-room each week under leaders from Teachers College.

Your society has each year, we are told, contributed money to support the Library. Some individual members have sent gifts of books and magazines no longer needed at home. We wish to thank these individuals and your society most cordially, and to tell you that your gifts are in daily use, and are daily appreciated.

Sincerely yours,
LETITIA LEFFERTS,
for Speyer Alumni.
EDWARD D. WARDELL,
for Speyer House Council.

Study of Teachers College by the Scotch Education Department.—The Scotch Education Department has published a comprehensive study of Teachers College, recently made by a member of its committee for the training of teachers, who came to America for the purpose. Descriptions of curricula, courses, degrees, diplomas, and university relations, lead up to an analysis of the accomplishment, and a series of suggestions for similar work for Scotland. Six elements in the work of the College are especially recommended:

1. The recognition of education as a university faculty, attracting able men to teaching.
2. The establishment of higher degrees in education, prolonging and intensifying the study of the subject.
3. The admission of subjects like Kindergarten and Nature Study to academic standing, developing these subjects and broadening the College curriculum.
4. The basing of courses in such special fields as Domestic Science, Fine Arts, and Manual Training on a broad general knowledge and culture.
5. The system of extension teaching, enabling teachers in service to keep in touch with university ideas and methods.
6. The personnel of the staff.

The monograph concludes with a tribute to the efficiency of the departments, the unity of aim, and the vision and inspiration of the head of the College.

Summer Session of Teachers College.—Teachers College is to perform a large share of the work of the coming summer session of the University. Dean Russell is a member of the administrative board; Professors Bigelow and Vulté, Misses Benton, Fulmer, Hill, Kirchwey, Weiser and Stackpole, and Messrs. Andrews, Fauver, Holm, McCastline, Noyes, Thatcher, and Weick of the Teachers College staff will give instruction. Professor Boone, Cubberly, Elliott, and Henderson, graduates of the College, and Messrs. Stone and Thompson, present students, will also give instruction. The laboratories for Domestic Science, Geography, Manual Training and Nature Study, Whittier Hall, and certain classes of the Speyer School will be open for the summer session. There will be four courses in Domes-

tic Science, fourteen in Education, two in Educational Psychology, two in Geography, four in Kindergarten, six in Manual Training, four in Nature Study, and ten in Physical Education. The excursions of the summer will be under the direction of Mr. Andrews, Director of Neighborhood Work in Speyer School.

Establishment of a Section of Education of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.—The meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science with the affiliated societies, which was held at Columbia University, Christmas week, was the largest which has ever met anywhere. The annual address of the retiring president, Calvin M. Woodward of St. Louis, had for its subject "The Science of Education." Heretofore, the subject of this address has always been of a technical nature, and the present subject is especially significant at this time. Professor Woodward was the founder of the first Manual Training School in the country and through the influence of his present address the American Association for the Advancement of Science established a new section—the Section of Education.

To quote from this address:

"To look at Education from a scientific standpoint one must take into account:

"1. The physiological laws which govern the growth and development of the brain.

"2. The exterior stimuli for promoting that growth most successfully.

"3. The kind and quantity of knowledge and skill one must have in order to meet most completely the demands of a carefully-selected occupation.

"I do not claim to have formulated the science of education, and I know of no one living who has ventured to make such a claim; and yet I believe that a science of education is possible—and it is high time that we set about a systematic study of its essential features with a view to a formal statement of its main principles. . . .

"While no section of this association can enforce the dictates of science, it would be helpful if we were able to establish these two things as true, viz.:

"1. That usefulness does not impair educational values.

"2. That a so-called culture-study like Latin may properly stand side by side with manual training in the curriculum."

Education and Public Service.—Education, both as to that which is professed under this name and to those who profess, seemingly develops a sort of self-centered enthusiasm for and in its own aims and activities and powers, especially within its own friendly and inspiring councils or self-created environments. Outside, in contact with the world of other and multitudinous affairs, the enthusiasm is apt to lose something of its freshness and vigor. The outer world wants things done: it cares but little for the doer, his technique, or his inner inspirational motive, which

constitute so large a part of the web and woof of the professional fabric of Education.

I am sure some such thought as this must lie within the consciousness of every one who acknowledges professional allegiance to the cause of Education; especially to those who are engaged in the work of university instruction in Education. For, whatever may be the current conclusions as to its present status, or the hopeful anticipations for its future recognition, the safest and best judgment that may be advanced regarding the position of Education as a subject for university treatment is that it is "in the making." Its present rank is potential rather than actual, notwithstanding its apparent success in winning the nod of recognition from the more ancient members of the academic hierarchy. To-day more than ever is the day for justification. The day of *faith* in the science or profession of education on the part of the world is rapidly passing. To-morrow must be one of works; and the question of questions has become, whither lies the greatest work to be done; whither the way of justification!

Three ideals, or better perhaps, motives seem to underlie Education as a division or department of university activity. The *academic* one of scholarship; the *professional* one of the higher training of teachers; and the *democratic* one of service. Such distinctions may appear to be unnatural, unwarranted, and didactic. Nevertheless, those who are following closely the university development of Education during the last few years cannot but be impressed with the unconscious or avowed recognition of these aims, singly or in disproportionate combination, by the different departments, schools, or colleges of Education.

It is not worth while to balance arguments on either the *scholarship* ideal or the *professional* aim. The last word may or may not have been said long ago. It does seem to be important though, under the present circumstances of American social ideals, that those who are engaged in the activities of its development within the university curriculum should recognize that Education is not *per se* or, exclusively, representative of either scholarly or professional effort. These aims form but two legs of its foundation tripod. The third and essential one is *public service*. Not that there is or can be any inseparable gap between scholarship and service. Their union has ever constituted the ideal of our higher intellectual life. That this newly quickening knowledge of Educatic ' will ape some of its academic associates and wrap itself too closely in the garb of a narrow research or investigation; that it will become too scholastic in its method of work, too monastic and self-centered with its own problems; that it will define service entirely in terms of teacher-preparation, thereby attempting to absolve by proxy its responsibility for service, constitute elements of real danger not to be disregarded.

This demand for service *as service* from Education, not service altogether under the subtle guise of scientific investigation, scholarly research, or indirectly through the technical training of teachers is perhaps the more marked in our great western universities, which, are in many ways the

centers of activity for the solution of the problems of our democratic state systems of education. To us has come the threefold demand—that of scholarship and advance, that of contributing essential elements in the preparation of teachers, and that of direct public service. And if, as I firmly believe, the problems of American Education to-day are not primarily of a pedagogic, but on the contrary of a political nature, there is opened up through this third demand a comparatively new field of usefulness to Education in the university; a field that is made up of neither books nor pedagogical science, but one filled with commonplace difficulties that await solution. Problems of organization, support, material equipment, cannot be solved in the library, nor in the classroom with students, but only by a correlation of the broader social and human forces that make for reform and progress.

The dominating element for the control and direction of public Education with us is lay and not professional in character. How to reach out, influence, and mould, as needs be, this lay element presents one of our great problems. One thing is certain, and that is, this problem will not be completely or directly solved by scholarly investigation or efforts to improve the technical processes of teaching. If there be any direct solution it will come after a close study at first hand, of the problem of the political control of Education. This means for Education, not the study of pedagogic detail but an understanding of human motives. The campaigns for better rural schools, better buildings for all classes of schools, more efficient school boards must be participated in by those whose study and professional activity have, or ought to have given the needful insight and foresight. Education in the University must mean better schools through an aroused and intelligent social sense of educational values. To create these values means that Education is rendering unto the state its proper tithe of service.

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT,
Ph.D. Columbia University and
Doctor's Diploma, Teachers College, 1905.

The Department of Education at the University of Washington.—The Department of Education at this University offers the following eight courses: 1. Childhood and Adolescence; 2. Observation and Practice; 3. High School Organization and Management; 4. School Organization; 5. History of Education; 6. Philosophy of Education; 7. Journal Club; 8. General Method. Dr. Sisson, director of the department has the first four of these courses and I the last four. The courses are open to Juniors, Seniors, and Graduates and are of course entirely elective. One of the most encouraging signs is that other departments are beginning to cease to regard our work as narrowly professional and that students are taking the History of Education, despite its reputation for being "stiff," who have no expectation of teaching but who recognize the value of the study from a cultural and sociological point

of view. This statement applies also to other courses offered by the department.

Our department has one privilege not enjoyed by many other Universities: namely, the right to grant to such students as satisfy its requirements, a normal diploma equivalent to a life certificate to teach in the public schools of Washington without further examination.

The lines of work in which the department is engaged are many and varied. Parents' meetings, teachers, institutes, schoolmasters' clubs and other educational gatherings make frequent calls for addresses. Extension courses and summer school also increase considerably the scope and influence of our work. The inspection of high schools to determine their eligibility for a place on the accredited school list is another important feature of our work, and one through which we are able to do much toward establishing standards of work throughout the state. To a considerable extent also the department acts as a bureau of information for principals and school boards who are constantly writing for advice on courses of study, equipment, and other matters.

At present we have no Model School but through the courtesy of Mr. F. B. Cooper, Superintendent of the Seattle schools and of Superintendent Yoder of Tacoma, formerly director of our department, and through the courtesy of the principals of several accessible elementary and secondary schools we are able to give students opportunities for observation and practice. The school systems of Seattle and Tacoma represent to a marked degree the best educational theory and practice of the day. Manual training, domestic science, art and music are under the care of specially trained supervisors. Public kindergartens,a juvenile court and parental school indicate something of the interest taken in education in Seattle,

The beauty of the location and surroundings of the University must be included among the assets of every department. The campus covers 355 acres. To the south of it lie two beautiful lakes, Washington and Union, beyond which tower the Cascades mantled with eternal snows. Mt. Ranier the loftiest of them all rises 14,000 feet. To the west stretches one of the most beautiful sea arms in the world,—Puget sound, dotted with high purple islands behind which rise the Olympics gleaming with snow.

Washington is developing rapidly and in no line of activity does she show greater progress than in education. Here as in every other state in the Union, Teachers College is playing no small part: H. M. Shafer, principal of the Normal School at Cheney, D. E. Cloyd, principal of the High School at Spokane, G. E. Marker director of the Training School at Cheney Normal School, occupy important not to say strategic positions. Besides these might be named other Teachers College alumni in less prominent positions, who are working nobly and accomplishing much towards the realization of those ideals of teaching and of education with which Teachers College is silently but surely impregnating the world.

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT.
Ph.D. Columbia University and
Doctor's Diploma, Teachers College, 1905.

Professor Swift has written in book form a story which was first told in the Model Sunday School of Teachers College. This book is entitled *The Most Wonderful Thing in the World* and is listed in the Bookman as one of the best sellers of the month. The Boston Transcript says of it, "It has the simplicity of the true fairy tale and the purity and beauty which befit the parable." And elsewhere "It contains a charming allegorical tale, poetic in conception and expression."

Academic Problems at the Calhoun Colored School.—Problems in the academic department of the Calhoun school are many, but the foundation of all is the absolute lack of home training, which poor as it may be in some cases is usually the natural heritage of the white child. Our children come to us speaking the dialect, which practically makes use of nouns and adjectives only, and they are unpracticed in thinking and speaking a full thought, or consecutive thoughts. After they are started in their work they are entirely unaided at home where in moments of leisure neither young nor old think of turning for pleasure to books even if obtainable, and where the one use of the newspaper is to fill the cracks through which comes the cold. In the dialect frequently the most common words have added or subtracted a letter or a syllable and the correct form, although having the same stem, is an entirely new acquaintance for our children. As a result reading is a process presenting an extra difficulty. Again the vocabularies are appallingly limited when viewed from the standpoint of the dictionary, although full enough if one counts in the many strange combinations of sounds with which they express their thoughts.

The habit of dependence and self pity is still strong, and has its effect on the class-room standards. Ideals of excellence are low and the limit of their capacity for hard work is soon reached. Details and nicety of finish are looked upon by many as mere nonsense.

One of the greatest difficulties is in choosing the subject matter to be taught. In reading, the usual fairy tales are available, and Mr. Stafford, once a student at Teachers College, has just published a book of African and plantation stories for the use of schools. The nature study stories, many history stories, and the like, are as valuable for colored as for children white, but there is not a good reader on the market compiled and illustrated expressly for colored children. The need for it is great and it will surely come. Why should colored children read without ceasing of the doings of their white neighbors, or never see their own kind presented in attractive illustrations in the pages of their readers?

In arithmetic, problems to illustrate local matters must be introduced. The yearly accounts at the "country store," the exact amount of which not even the storekeeper knows, much less the purchaser; the measuring of fields; cotton problems; the cost of waste of trees by girdling and burning; the cost of buying new lumber to take the place of that wasted when it is desirable to build; loans and the exorbitant rates of interest, etc., must all be called to the attention of our students.

The most discouraging difficulties are in the language work where

the dialect, and the inability to construct sentences, and the tendency to inaccuracy present a formidable combination. Courses of study in singing may have been well planned for white schools but the same has not been done for colored schools so as to develop best the musical tendencies of the negro.

The most encouraging results of the fourteen years' work of the school is the little community of independent land owners that has sprung up. The neat four-room cottages painted outside and varnished within, the book shelves rather small but good beginnings, the occasional weekly newspaper used as it was intended to be, are all indicative of the larger community that must come eventually, of better standards of living, and of higher ideals of excellence which will show more and more in our academic work.

MABEL E. BROWN
Bachelor's Diploma, Teachers College, 1906.

The School Children of Porto Rico.—Teachers College has at least six representatives in Porto Rico this year. Among them Miss Mary Adaline Lamb and Miss Ada Rose Gallaher are critic teachers here at the Practice School of the University of Porto Rico.

Conditions on the Island since the Americanization are more interesting and more promising than ever before in the opportunities for social work which are offered. A school library with books in English only is popular with the children of the Practice School. The school bank teaches thrift, and children of the poorer families bring their savings more regularly than those who are more prosperous. In the Normal School a branch of the Anti-Tuberculosis League has been organized to support a tent in the new, open-air hospital down by the shore. The enthusiasm for the American bean bag among the little children, basket ball among the Normal School girls and base ball and track athletics among the young men is now at its height. Since the two races of finest physique in the world are to be found in the Tropics, there is hope of developing a sturdy people here. The government is lending its aid in stamping out tropical anemia. With the improved conditions in diet and housing possible under the new regime and with regular, out-door exercise, perhaps even these frail people may become robust.

In school work proper the great struggle is to introduce English. Children can speak the new language more readily than adults and if all the children were in schools where English is used, the Islanders might soon become English-speaking. But the public schools can accommodate only one child in five and in many of the existing schools, work is carried on in Spanish, so the date when the entire population may be able to read and write in either language is still remote. The greatest need is for more school houses so that all children of school age may attend. It is pathetic to see how eager both children and parents are for education. They come to the school house daily begging for places. They offer to bring their own chairs and buy their own books, if they may be allowed

to come in and sit on the edge of the class. The edges, however, were long since pre-empted and the new applicants with tears in their eyes must be turned away to wait until September in the hope that in the annual scramble for places, a chance may fall to them. Those who are among the elect appreciate their opportunity and work with so much zest that we teachers find ourselves spoiled for teaching in the States, where compulsory education sends the unwilling child to school.

SUSAN D. HUNTINGTON,
Teachers College, 1901–2.

Work at Louisiana State University.—This University of Louisiana, was founded by Gen. W. T. Sherman before the War, and is now located in buildings constructed by the Government in 1829. Here for many years was a Spanish fort, and on these grounds was the home of President Zachary Taylor. The campus includes over two hundred acres of land, situated on a bluff overlooking the mile-wide Father of Waters.

This institution has recently organized four new departments: Law, Medicine, Dairying, and Education. In the last department, there are thirty-five students in the Freshman year. The purpose of the department is to prepare men and women for the high school work of the state. Beside the ordinary courses in Education, my duties carry me out weekly to Teachers Monthly Associations, to campaigns for special taxes, to rallies for concentration of country schools, or for the organization of high schools, to lectures of a very popular sort at school fairs for the purpose of making money to build a school house or start a library. This year the state spent over $350,000 in new school buildings.

Occasionally I go to the week's institutes which are held in every parish, and last year I lectured at the fourteen month-long institutes or normals, besides teaching in one of them established at this university for those of high school training. Again, the Agricultural Commission has meetings for the farmers, in which I have taken considerable part, and of course in the spring time, the numerous high schools and denominational schools want a University representative to come around.

It is a delight to find so many Teachers College people in this field, all doing good work. Mr. Heckert, the newest comer, is very much liked and besides trying to manage class work is skirmishing over the territory somewhat as I have done, and for the same reasons; the wish for inspiration and aid is so great. A straw to show the growth of educational sentiment under the leadership of Supt. Aswell and Prof. Keeny, is shown by the fact that the state will need 800 more teachers next year than it has this year.

C. J. C. BENNETT,
Ph.D. Columbia University and
Doctor's Diploma. Teachers College, 1905.

Department of Home Economics at Ontario Agricultural College.—The Ontario Agricultural College is situated on heights about a mile

from the city of Guelph. The Ontario Government established it in 1874 with two objects: first, to train young men in the science and art of improved husbandry; and second, to conduct experiments and publish the results. It opened with an ordinary stone farmhouse as the main building, and in the early years faced much opposition from the very class it was intended to help. For thirty years it has grown steadily in favor with the people until now its work is divided among departments whose influence profoundly affects the agricultural practice of all Canada from Atlantic to Pacific, and reaches far beyond, since its students come from all parts of the world; and until now the Ontario farmers (40,000 of them last year) run annual excursions to the College in June to learn what is being done and to see for themselves the experiments in progress.

In 1902 Sir William MacDonald of Montreal, offered to add two new buildings to the College provided the Government would maintain them and devote them largely to the education of Canadian women for home life. The offer was promptly accepted, and nearly $200,000 was expended upon Macdonald Institute a well equipped instruction building and Macdonald Hall, a fine women's dormitory. The Home Economics work was begun in 1903 but it was 1904 before the buildings were completed and handed over.

Macdonald Hall is a charming place with its bright rooms, wide corridors and spacious gymnasium, which sees many frolics as well as drills. The Superintendent succeeds in making it homelike in spite of its size, and the girls enjoy life there. Macdonald Institute has a very complete equipment for lecture and practical work in domestic science and sewing which is strengthened by the resources of the Chemical, Bacteriological, Biological, Horticultural, Poultry, Dairy, and Manual Training departments of the College, each of which carries on special classes for the Home Economics students. A director and six instructors and one or two special lecturers make up the staff of this department. Teachers College Alumni will be interested in knowing that one member is a woman physician, and four of them are old Teachers College students.

Two branches of Home Economics work are carried on,—the professional and the non-professional or Homemaker. The professional is again divided into the Normal and the Housekeeper Courses. The Normal course in domestic science is the outgrowth and continuation of the work begun by Mrs. Hoodless in the Ontario Normal School of Domestic Science and Art, in Hamilton. The Hamilton school was closed in 1903 and its students and staff transferred to the more satisfactory surroundings of the Ontario Agricultural College. The course is open to women with Junior Leaving or Junior Matriculation standing and continues two years. The professional Housekeeper—also a two year course—is the outcome of a demand for trained women to control the housekeeping of large institutions. It is open only to mature women. The homemaker work is divided into a one year course and a short course thrice repeated each year. The longer course is open to anyone over seventeen with high school entrance standing, and the shorter one to those

who have had common school training. Both include a goodly amount of cookery, laundry, sewing, housework, and allied subjects, and are meant chiefly for young women with little or no experience in household affairs. The longer course includes a week of actual housekeeping practice, when the student has to do all the work of a small apartment occupied by two people; and the experience proves of great value.

The original object of the college,—to train young men in the science and art of improved husbandry, which has been steadily adhered to, has in the homemaker work of the Institute been adapted to the girls' business of homework. The donor of these buildings expressed the wish that his gift should be a means of training the minds and hands of young women to those forms of ability which in after life may be applied to home making. The older departments welcomed the new woman's work warmly, and each stands ready to help it in every way possible. If it can in the next thirty years do for the daughters of the country what they are doing for the farmers and their sons, Sir William Macdonald will consider his gift well bestowed.

M. U. Watson,
Teachers College, 1898–1900.

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This number of the TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD is the fourth of a series that describes the work of the various grades of the Horace Mann Elementary School as it is now carried on. The first number describing the work of the first grade appeared in January, 1906[1]; the second describing the work of the second and third grades, in September, 1906[1]; the third on the work of the fourth and fifth grades, in January, 1907.[1] As it has been impossible to condense the work of the sixth and seventh grades into one number, the seventh-grade work will not be published until the next regular issue of the RECORD, in September, 1907.

In the first number of this series the point of view of the Horace Mann School on certain phases of elementary education was briefly stated in an article entitled "Controlling Ideas of the Horace Mann Elementary School," where were considered such topics as The Meaning and Aim of Education, Moral Education, Interest, Nature of the Recitation, Correlation, Nature of the Child, and School Life. This article is, therefore, an introduction to this series, but is not reprinted in this number.

This number has been prepared by the teachers of the sixth grade with the assistance of an advisory committee.

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[1] Reprinted as separate pamphlets, price fifty cents each.

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